The Outlook

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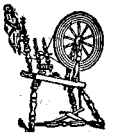

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, SEPTEMBER 24, 1904

A Welcome Caution

Sunday morning's newspapers publish the following letter from Alton B. Parker, the Democratic candidate for President, to Mr. George F. Parker, chief of the literary department of the Democratic National Committee:

Rosemount, Esopus, New York, August 17, 1904.

My Dear Mr. Parker:

The "Times" of this morning says that the party text-book is about prepared, and that it will go to the printer in a few days. Therefore I hasten to beg you to see to it that there is no word in it that reflects upon the personal honor and integrity of President Roosevelt.

An "Evening Post" editorial indicates that but little care was taken in that direction toward myself by the compiler of the Republican text-book, but let there be no rejoinder in kind or otherwise.

I feel confident that you need no reminder; still, my anxiety impels me to send this caution. Very truly yours,

ALTON B. PARKER.

Mr. George F. Parker.

We do not indorse the implied criticism of the Republican Campaign Book, for that book we have not seen, but otherwise The Outlook heartily indorses this letter. It not only proves the excellent spirit of the candidate, and furnishes what may be regarded as an authoritative standard for the Democratic text-book, it also furnishes what it would be well for the entire press to accept as their standard in the political discussions during the great debate. It is perfectly legitimate to discuss the character of the candidates for the purpose of determining their fitness for the Presidential office; but it is not legitimate to indulge in imputation of evil motives, or in vituperation, invective, and name-calling. To call Mr. Roosevelt a "war lord," or Mr. Parker a "small politician," is not argument. To quote, as the New York "Times" does, with approval, in the same issue in which it publishes Judge Parker's letter, that "it is a fair inference that the action of President Roosevelt [the pension order] three months before the nomination, was a bid for the pension vote," while at the same time it frankly admits that this inference "lacks proof;" to declare, as some of the Republican journals have done by a similar inferential process, and with a similar lack of proof, that Mr. Parker's celebrated gold telegram was devised beforehand, and issued as a bid for the Gold Democratic vote, is not argument, and is not honorable warfare. There are certain rules of public debate established by parliamentary custom, the transgression of which is always subject to rebuke as "unparliamentary." It would be well if the public press, accepting the spirit of Judge Parker's letter, would regulate their discussion by these parliamentary rules. It would be well if they found themselves always rebuked by the public for unparliamentary methods in the political campaign.

❀

New York State Republicans

The strife in the Republican party in New York State has come to a head in an open conflict between Mr. Platt and Mr. Odell, and in the defeat of the former; it is not so clear that the latter has won a victory. When, in 1902, the question whether Mr. Roosevelt should be finally indorsed by the party was raised, Mr. Platt, then the unqualified leader of the Republican party in the State, said that it was "not necessary." The indorsement was nevertheless given, and Senator Platt's candidate for Lieutenant-Governor, Mr. George P. Sheldon, was defeated by Mr. Frank W. Higgins, a business man of excellent standing, and of some political experience as State Senator. When the State Convention met last week, Mr. Timothy L. Woodruff appeared as Senator Platt's candidate for Governor, and Mr. Higgins, the

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Lieutenant-Governor, announced himself a candidate, saying that he had made no efforts to obtain delegates. Mr. Odell, the Chairman of the Republican State Committee and the successor of Mr. Platt as the recognized head of the Republican organization, declared himself not the advocate of any candidate, and called a conference to determine what was best to be done; but Senator Platt refused to attend, and declared that the question must be carried to the floor of the Convention. In the end Mr. Woodruff withdrew, and Mr. Higgins, who clearly had a majority of the Convention, was nominated. He will have the support, possibly not of Mr. Platt, but of such followers as Mr. Platt still possesses, who have confidence in Mr. Higgins's independence, and who think that they prevented the nomination of a more plastic person by Governor Odell. The platform indorses the State administration of Governor Odell, and thus the Governor, who is already an issue through serving as Chairman of the State Committee, will become doubly prominent in the campaign.

❀

Maine's Election and the Campaign Drift

The plurality of a trifle more than 27,000 cast for Mr. Cobb, the Republican candidate for Governor of Maine, is held out by the managers of the great political parties as a good omen for each ticket. The Democrats find consolation in that, compared with the September election of 1900, the Republican plurality has shrunk almost 5,000; and in that the Democratic vote increased 25 per cent. over 1900 while the Republican vote increased only about four per cent., and that this ratio applied to Indiana and Illinois would make both States Democratic, and applied to New York would make it Republican by less than 7,000. The Republicans, on the other hand, point out that 27,000 plurality is 9,000 in excess of the highest figure they had expected, and that it is practically the same as that of the State election of 1902. There is no doubt that the Democratic leaders were disappointed that the plurality went above 20,000. As an index to the way the National election goes, both Maine and Vermont have been reasonably reliable. Maine's September Republican plurality in 1884 went below 20,000, with Mr. Blaine the candidate for President, and Mr. Cleveland was elected. In 1892 it was about 13,000, and Mr. Cleveland was again elected. When this September plurality has exceeded 20,000, the Republican ticket has prevailed. The same rule has held true as to Vermont. The Democrats have carried the country in November only when the September plurality of the Green Mountain State fell below 23,000. This year both States have failed to show a strong Democratic undertow. This may be due to the ill fortune which has pursued the Democrats in getting their campaign properly started. The strife over the issues to be presented still continues. The conflict among the managers as to who is in authority is still under way, as shown by the calling in of Senator A. P. Gorman, of Maryland, at the National headquarters in New York to "advise," and the despatch of Mr. Thomas Taggart, the Chairman of the National Committee, to Indiana and the Middle West to look after electoral votes in that territory. In Wisconsin the situation, it is said, has not improved for the Republicans. In Illinois the Democratic leaders of Cook County (Chicago) are boasting their ability to roll up a vote large enough to swamp the Republican plurality in the rest of the State. In New Jersey, on the other hand, the revolt of the radicals has been so alarming that James Smith, Jr., the Democratic leader of the State, has had to make a show of abdicating, and in the recent State Convention he had to permit the Bryan element to control and nominate Mr. Black, of Jersey City, for Governor. In Connecticut the Republicans have met the nomination of Judge Robertson by naming Lieutenant-Governor Henry Roberts for Governor. The Republicans of Colorado have renominated Governor Peabody, and this brings to an acute issue the labor troubles which for many months have convulsed that State. Much interest will be felt in the election in Colorado, Utah, Idaho, and Wyoming, because of the efforts of the Democrats

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to force the Republicans into a position of defending Mormonism. In these four States 100,000 women will be voters in November. Senator Fairbanks, the Republican candidate for Vice-President, is making a rather remarkable campaign tour, frequently speaking at widely separated points on succeeding days, and he has made a "whirlwind" circuit of West Virginia, one of the doubtful States.

❀

The Independent Movement in Toledo

Decent city government usually comes through the activity of the independent voter, not through mere partisan politics. In the city of Toledo, of which the late S. M. Jones was Mayor for seven years, a strong political organization holds every city and county office under its control, except the mayoralty. It controls a majority of the City Council and the Board of Elections, and, thanks to the new School Code, it is reaching out toward the Board of Education. Its high-handed actions have reached such a stage that it has been openly charged that one-third of the revenue derived from taxation in the city of Toledo is spent in "graft" and "boodle," and that no man can secure a job on the city streets or in the public parks unless he swears allegiance to the machine and agrees to pay a percentage of his wages into the campaign fund. This is the condition now confronting the citizens of the city. Mr. Jones left no organization. He did not try to build and maintain an organization, neither did he attempt to put a complete ticket into the field. He was literally, as he said, "a man without a party." The force of his own personality and the belief in his integrity and honesty of purpose enabled him to win; but the organization, the machine, controlled all the other offices. They also succeeded, through the instrumentality of two subservient State Legislatures, in reducing the power and importance of the Mayor. Now many influential business and professional men of the city have been aroused and are organizing an independent movement. The work is being carried into every ward of the city. The leaders are not office-seekers, but men who desire good, clean, efficient city government. The intention is to maintain a permanent organization. The platform for the present campaign is short and terse. So brief is it that it can be printed in large type on the back of an ordinary business card: "First, That municipal affairs should be separate from and independent of State and National politics, and that cities should have the fullest measure of home rule. Second, That candidates for municipal offices should be selected solely on account of their honesty and ability to discharge official duties, regardless of any political party affiliation. Third, That no franchise for any public utility shall ever be granted except by direct vote of the people." Upon such a platform all good citizens should be able to stand. The last plank is particularly pertinent to the local situation, as only the Mayor's veto prevents the donation to the street railroad company of a twenty-five years' franchise. It is significant that the chief political "boss" of Toledo is also a paid attorney of the local traction company. A man's belief as to protection or free trade, the money question, or imperialism, has absolutely nothing to do with his ability to take care of the business of a municipality. What has street-paving to do with the tariff, or a street railroad franchise with free silver? Until the citizens of American cities separate National and State issues from municipal affairs, political rings have a fertile field for "graft" and "boodle." Agitation, discussion, and publicity are needed.

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The Bankers' Convention

In welcoming the Bankers' Convention to the city of New York, Mayor McClellan said, "The question of the currency is quite as scientific and as technical as is architecture or medicine. It will never be satisfactorily settled until the solution is reached with the help of those who know what they are talking about." It is certainly true that in a democracy the people can directly pass only upon great and fundamental questions, and must necessarily leave questions of detail to be determined by experts. The people

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must determine whether the United States shall construct and own the post-office buildings, but they must leave architects to determine how those buildings shall be constructed. So they must determine whether the basis of the currency shall be gold, or silver, or gold *and* silver, and whether the currency shall be issued by the Government, or by the banks, or by the Government *and* the banks; but they must leave all matters of detail to the determination of experts in the art of banking. Acting on this assumption, we attempt in this paragraph only to give to the non-expert reader a statement of those currency questions brought before the recent Bankers' Convention which the non-expert reader can be expected to understand, and in the solution of which he is therefore directly interested. These questions are four. (1) We have now three kinds of notes issued by the United States Government; namely, notes declared by law to be legal tender for all debts, public and private, except duties on exports and interest on the public debt; gold certificates, that is, notes on their face payable only in gold; and silver certificates, that is, notes on their face payable only in silver. Should these three kinds of notes be reduced to one kind, expressed on their face to be payable in gold? Such a unification of the currency is perhaps theoretically desirable; practically it does not seem to us important. The silver certificates serve all the purposes of currency as well as if they were in terms payable in gold, and in our judgment, though we do not speak as experts on this subject, the Treasury Department would have the right under the existing law to pay them in gold, if this was necessary in order to keep them at a par with gold certificates. (2) Some notes are issued directly by the Government, others are issued by the banks. Of the former, issued directly by the Government, $346,000,000 are made a legal tender, and to that extent are in effect a forced loan. Some bankers think that these greenbacks should be retired and all currency should be issued directly by the banks. The argument for such retirement appears to us theoretical, not practical. So long as the Government is paying out every year a sum largely in excess of this three hundred and forty-six millions, and is receiving back an equal amount in taxation, we can see no peril to our currency in the Government's issuing legal tender notes which serve this double purpose: that of payment of Federal obligations to the people, that of payment by the people of their taxes. By this process the Government saves interest on three hundred and forty-six millions of dollars, which is worth saving. (3) "Our Sub-Treasury system," says Mr. Hepburn, "which withdraws from circulation the daily custom receipts of the Government, and locks them in the Treasury, from which they can be withdrawn only by an appropriation of Congress, is an arbitrary and artificial interference with currency conditions, enacted at a time when the Government professedly was afraid to trust its income funds in the hands of the banks." We judge that practically all the bankers are agreed that some way should be found by which this money can be safely loaned by the Government, and so kept in circulation. We can conceive of no reason why this should not be done, except that popular distrust of too intimate relations between the Government and the banks which is not wholly a prejudice; but the expert judgment ought to find a way in which this idle money could be safely released for public service. (4) Panics are aggravated, if not produced, by insufficiency of currency or by the hoarding of currency. It is proposed to allow the banks, in time of panic, to issue a larger amount, subject to a tax of five or six per cent., so that as soon as the larger demand for money abates, the circulation will be withdrawn. This plan for an "emergency currency" appears to have the sanction of a majority of the bankers, and the one argument adduced against it, that it would make the community more inclined to excessive speculation, because it would mitigate the penalties which a panic inflicts as the result of excessive speculation, does not appear to us adequate. We agree with Mr. Hepburn that "there should be legislative provision for a temporary currency

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to be issued by banks in periods of extreme necessity." The other questions brought before the Bankers' Convention were questions to be solved by expert judgment, and do not call, therefore, for interpretative report by us.

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Civic Co-operation

A few weeks since one hundred and fifty officials of Wisconsin cities met at Appleton to hold their eighth annual meeting to consider sundry questions of importance to their municipalities. Among the topics discussed were the abolition of the contract system, the improvement of the educational system, charter reform, and uniform municipal accounting. The discussion of these questions is nothing new nor very striking, but the fact that the officials of practically every city in a great and populous State should for eight consecutive years come together to counsel with one another as to the best methods of conducting municipal affairs is at once striking and encouraging. Moreover, the members of the League of Wisconsin Cities believe in action as well as counsel, and when they have agreed upon a programme they believe in having it carried out. So arrangements have been made, as in former years, to secure the necessary legislation at the next session of the Legislature. Iowa has a similar league of city officials, and last winter succeeded in securing the enactment of eleven out of the twelve measures constituting its requests. The mayors and councilmen, being practical men and very often practical politicians, knew how to go about getting what they wanted. That they were willing to use their power and knowledge to bring about such wholly excellent results constitutes another encouraging feature. California also has a league which has made itself felt both in securing good legislation and defeating obnoxious bills. An interesting fact about the Wisconsin league is that its secretary is a university professor—Dr. Samuel E. Sparling, who is also an alderman in the city of Madison. The secretary of the Michigan league is also a college professor, Dr. Fairlie, author of a standard volume on "Municipal Administration." Who ten years ago would have had the temerity to prophesy that municipal administrators and college professors would be working together to improve municipal conditions?

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The Interparliamentary Union

One of the important conferences held in connection with the Louisiana Purchase Exposition was that of the Interparliamentary Union which met in St. Louis on Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday of last week. As our readers will remember, this is a body that was organized by French and British parliamentarians in Paris sixteen years ago for the purpose of promoting the cause of peace and arbitration. Because of the connection of its members with various legislative assemblies, its annual deliberations have much more than a mere academic interest. At the St. Louis Conference last week the deliberative bodies of fifteen nations were represented, including the United Kingdom, France, Germany, Austria, Hungary, Italy, Sweden, Norway, Switzerland, Belgium, the Netherlands, Portugal, Denmark, Roumania, and the United States. Among the delegates were some of the better known public men of Europe and America, including Count Apponyi, of Hungary, the Hon. Philip Stanhope, of England, Count d'Alviella, of Belgium, M. La Fontaine, the Belgian Socialist, Dr. Gobat, of Switzerland, and Representatives Burton and Hepburn, of the United States. Representative Richard Bartholdt, of St. Louis, was President of the Conference. The delegates were welcomed to the United States by Mr. F. B. Loomis, Assistant Secretary of State, representing President Roosevelt. Mr. Loomis directed attention to the large number of general arbitration treaties that have been signed within the last year, and to the large number of cases in which special arbitrators have been appointed. He assured the Conference that it was "the earnest hope of the President that at no distant day the path may be made clear for entering into a comprehensive agreement of arbitration with all governments which share our views." This matter,

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he went on to say, was having at present the most earnest consideration, and he added that "the Government of the United States, in all proper ways, will continue to give its aid and encouragement to the cause of international arbitration to which it is so firmly and earnestly committed." The Conference responded to this address with a congratulatory telegram to the President, assuring him that he was "considered by all nations the champion of international justice."

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Intervention and an Annual Peace Congress Recommended

The most important action of the session was the adoption on the second day of two resolutions, one calling upon the Powers to intervene to end the war in the Far East, the second inviting the President of the United States to call a second Peace Congress analogous to that held at The Hague in 1899. The intervention resolution, which was presented by Count d'Alviella, is as follows:

> The Interparliamentary Conference, shocked by the horrors of the war that is being waged in the Far East between two civilized States, and deploring that the Powers signatory of the convention of The Hague have been unable to have recourse to the clauses thereof which direct them to tender their mediation immediately upon the outbreak of hostilities, asks the Powers signatory of the convention of The Hague to intervene either jointly or separately with the belligerents in order to facilitate the restoration of peace, and instructs the Interparliamentary Bureau to bring the present resolution to the knowledge of said Powers.

A resolution censuring the Powers for not intervening at the opening of hostilities was lost by a close vote. The action calling for a second Peace Congress—apparently the most notable and far-reaching event of the Conference—followed that taken at the Washington Conference last winter when the United States branch of the Union was established. At that time a resolution was introduced, which is still pending before Congress, requesting President Roosevelt to take the initiative in the movement. The resolution adopted at St. Louis last week was presented by Representative Burton, of Ohio. After reciting the fact that the spirit of modern civilization demands that differences between nations be adjudicated by the arbitrament of courts, the resolution continues:

> The Conference requests the several Governments of the world to send representatives to an annual conference to be held at a time and place to be agreed upon by them, for the purpose of considering:
>
> 1. The questions for the consideration of which the Conference at The Hague expressed a wish that a future conference be called.
>
> 2. The negotiation of arbitration treaties between the nations represented at the conference to be convened.
>
> 3. The advisability of establishing an International Congress to convene periodically for the discussion of international questions.
>
> And this Conference respectfully requests the President of the United States to invite all the nations to send representatives to such a conference.

Speaking for the resolution, Count Apponyi asserted that it was especially fitting that such a call should come from the United States. This was the general opinion of the delegates, and the resolution carried without a dissenting vote. While there seems to be no immediate prospect that the Powers could agree on intervention to end the war, as suggested by the Union, it is altogether probable that a second international Peace Congress might perceptibly further the cause of arbitration. And the invitation to such a congress might very properly come from the President of the United States. An attempt was made by the Hungarian group to recommend a revision of the Geneva convention to forbid the use of floating mines. So much opposition developed, however, that this resolution was withdrawn. After the adjournment of the Conference the delegates set out by special train to visit Kansas City and other Western cities as the guests of the National Government, which has appropriated $50,000 for their entertainment.

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The Romance of Geography

Again and again in the sessions of the International Geographical Congress, held in New York City last week, the romantic and picturesque elements of the subject of exploration were vividly brought out. Commander

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Peary spoke with real eloquence of the Panama Canal project as "that vision of the centuries, that envious dream of monarchs and ministers," now at last accepted as a fact of the near future by the nations, since "a fearless master hand has at a stroke cut the Gordian tangle that has hitherto defied the ablest statesmen and financiers." Another speaker told of the discovery, loss out of knowledge, and rediscovery of an uncharted group of islands in the North Pacific, where more than one vessel never heard from may have been pounded to pieces. Dr. Cook, who came back from the Antarctic not long ago, told of the almost lifeless desert of ice about the South Pole, compared with which the Arctic region swarms with life; and told also the dramatic tale of his unsuccessful attempt to climb Mount McKinley, and his determination to try it again next summer. Dr. Pfeil, a German explorer, who practically founded a new colony for the German Empire in East Africa, related the adventures of his two companions and himself, who seized the country as an independent venture in 1884, after borrowing ten thousand dollars from their parents to finance the undertaking. Dr. Pfeil held the territory alone, the only white man within a thousand miles, while his companions hastened to Germany to suggest the occupation of a territory nearly equal in area to the Empire. Another speaker told of the measurement of depressions in the floor of the Pacific Ocean—one of which is at least twenty-nine thousand feet deep, so that in it the tallest mountain in the world could be entirely submerged. Finally, Commander Peary, at a banquet given in his honor, spoke with enthusiasm of his lifelong fascination in the search for the North Pole. After making the first announcement of the fact that a contract for his new Arctic ship has been signed, and that he has definitely determined to start north again next summer in another attempt upon the North Pole, he said: "Shall I win? God knows. I hope and dream and pray that I may. But if I do not, some one else will; and here comes in another feature of Polar efforts." Mr. Peary declared that the generous rivalry of men and nations in the attempt to reach the Pole was a worthy one, and that "there is no higher, purer field of rivalry." The Congress had already adopted a resolution expressing its belief in the value of Polar research, and applauded this expression with enthusiasm. Mr. Peary's new ship will be so constructed as to permit it to stand ice pressure at the bows without injury; it is to be built in Maine; and although additional funds are needed to fit out and equip the ship, Mr. Peary feels sure that Americans will not permit the expedition to fail for lack of funds. His new plan of campaign is to force this powerful though small steamer to the north shores of Grant Land, taking on board at Whale Sound the best available force of the Eskimos, with whom he has worked and lived; to go into winter quarters on the shore of Grant Land; and with the earliest returning light to start on the sledge journey across the central Polar ice-pack, accompanied only, as we understand him, by his Eskimo followers. All admirers of courage and perseverance will cordially wish well to the veteran explorer.

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The War in the East

The reports from the scene of hostilities have been flatly contradictory the past week, as is always the case when there occurs a period of comparative rest from active hostilities. Thus, it is asserted on the one hand that Marshal Oyama is not attempting to advance toward Mukden, but is strengthening and resting his forces, while from another source it is alleged that the Japanese right wing under General Kuroki is within three miles of Mukden; so, also, General Kuropatkin is reported to intend to hold Mukden and give battle in force there, while other accounts assert that the Russians are ready to leave Mukden at a moment's notice and will make their stand at Tie Pass (Tieling). Rather curiously, both armies are said to be reluctant to fight at Mukden, lest the imperial tombs near by be injured and the Chinese enraged. Really the most important army news of the week is that from Tokyo stating that the Jap-

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anese militia or first reserve has been called out. It is said that this additional force, which includes all able-bodied men between thirty and forty years of age, will result in raising 120,000 men within a month, and that ultimately it will more than equalize any possible reinforcements that the Russians may receive this year over the Siberian Railroad. From Port Arthur come the contradictory reports that the Japanese have resolved on a close siege and the reduction of the place by cutting off supplies and without further assault; and, on the other hand, the assertion that a tremendous general assault is daily expected. Prince Radziwill, a Russian officer who escaped from Port Arthur with despatches to Chefoo last week, gives a terrible account of the frightful slaughter in the various attacks on Port Arthur, and asserts that the white flag is no longer respected by either army, while both are accused of misusing the Red Cross flag. Statements of this kind are to be taken with some allowance, and Prince Radziwill's ghastly stories of death and suffering are, it is to be hoped, somewhat exaggerated—a conclusion that is suggested by the fact that his narrative includes such statements as that on a particular day the bodies of 2,600 Japanese soldiers were discovered in one place, to the surprise of the Russians, who were not able to explain in what engagement this wholesale slaughter took place—a not altogether probable tale. No doubt, however, war has been exemplified in its most horrible aspects in the attacks upon Port Arthur.

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Food and Fuel Not Contraband

Last week reply was made from St. Petersburg to the British and American notes on the subject of contraband of war. The reply was in the main conciliatory and satisfactory to the two great neutral nations. It is admitted on all sides that foodstuffs and coal may be contraband of war if it can be shown affirmatively by the belligerent which seizes them in neutral vessels that they were intended for the use of the military or naval forces of the enemy, or are consigned to blockaded ports. But Russia has heretofore contended that proof of this need not be adduced—that is, that the burden of evidence is on the owners of the neutral ships or goods to show that the food or fuel is not intended for military purposes. Great Britain and the United States have always taken the exactly opposite view, and Russia now yields to this interpretation of international law. The importance of this to all neutral nations, and especially to the United States as a great exporter of foodstuffs, needs no demonstration. Russia does not formally change her proclamation as to contraband issued at the beginning of the war, but officially interprets it so as to make food and fuel found on neutral ships free, unless it comes under the conditions named above. As to railway material and some kinds of machinery, however, Russia is not inclined to yield. There is a certain amount of reason in this position in the present war, as it can be said with some justice that railway material imported now by Japan is obviously intended for military purposes, as there is comparatively little railway-building in Japan outside of the war territory, where, on the contrary, a very great deal is going on. The general effect of the Russian reply has been satisfactory to the British Foreign Office and to the United States State Department, and it is believed that the situation as regards contraband of war has been freed from a very obvious and serious danger.

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The Case of the Lena

The willingness of Russia to dismantle her auxiliary cruiser the Lena, which crossed the Pacific from Vladivostok to San Francisco, ends amicably an incident that might conceivably have proved troublesome. Both the belligerent nations, Japan and Russia, evidently accepted the conduct of the United States in the matter, as well as its intimations of future action, as absolutely correct. If China had shown the same firm and reasonable attitude with reference to the similar questions which arose at Shanghai and elsewhere, much ill feeling might have been avoided. The United States acted in every particular as should act a

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nation genuinely neutral in its attitude and well able to enforce its decisions. To allow the Lena to make complete repairs, which would require many weeks' time, and then to leave San Francisco with the purpose of stopping and searching neutral ships, was not to be thought of for a moment. Practically the choice of two courses was open to the Russian Government—to make within a reasonable time such repairs as were absolutely necessary to allow the Lena to reach a home port, or to dismantle the vessel and hold her with her crew at San Francisco until the end of the war. The latter course was adopted; and if, as it is rumored will be the case, other Russian war vessels reach San Francisco, no doubt the same course will be followed. From the moment the Lena came into the harbor of San Francisco our Government took adequate measures to protect her from any secret attack by her enemies, and when the Japanese at San Francisco showed a disposition to take a share in the investigation as to the Lena's condition and status, intimation was quickly given that the affair was in the hands of the United States, which would act without urging or dictation.

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M. Charles Wagner

Among the many distinguished men who have come or will come to this country during the present season, none is surer of a cordial welcome than M. Charles Wagner, who arrived in New York City last week. He is to be the guest of the President at the White House late in the present week, to attend the Peace Conference in Boston, and later to give a series of lectures in different parts of the country. Few foreigners are more widely known than this Parisian pastor and preacher who speaks every Sunday to great congregations on the Boulevard Beaumarchais, Paris. Born in an Alsatian valley, in a hamlet between the fields of Burgundy and the plains of Lorraine, among simple, hardy people, the son of a pastor and the grandson of a pastor, M. Wagner took his degree at the Sorbonne in 1869, and became, later, a student of theology in the University of Strassburg. He went to Paris an unknown young man twenty-two years ago and became the preacher in a small parish, where he made himself intimately acquainted with the needs and the attitude of the working people. His congregation has grown from the smallest beginnings until he has become one of the most influential preachers in the Paris of to-day. He is best known in this country by his later books, "The Simple Life" and "By the Fireside," but these are in no respect more notable than his earlier books, "Youth," "Justice," and others. From the beginning he has preached one gospel—the gospel of simple, wholesome, religious living, and he has illustrated that gospel in his own life and character. He is preeminently a manly man; a leader of the notable reaction against materialism, dilettanteism, and pessimism; a preacher of faith, hope, love, and purity.

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The Bavarian Regency

The statement that Prince Luitpold of Bavaria will shortly resign the regency and be succeeded by his son, Prince Ludwig, is not unexpected, although it can hardly fail to occasion regret among the Bavarians, who are deeply attached to their present ruler. King Ludwig, the friend of Wagner, was tainted with madness, which took the form of almost unlimited extravagance in building, and finally led him to drown himself, holding his physician in his arms, in the Starnborgsee. He was succeeded by his brother Otto, who was also insane, and who has spent many years in a retreat, carefully guarded. The branch of the family to which the Regent belongs is free from the taint which has added such a tragic chapter to the history of royal families. The Regent, now past his eighty-fourth birthday, is a man of notable physical vigor, fond of out-of-door life, a sportsman, and an octogenarian whose interests and faculties are in no way dimmed. Ludwig, his son, is also a man of the simplest habits and the plainest exterior, is past sixty, and has a family of sons whom he has educated in the most sensible Bavarian fashion. There are very few reigning families on such easy and thoroughly

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affectionate terms with their subjects as the royal family of Bavaria, who are to be seen driving about the city with no ostentation, are easily accessible, and whose patronage of the arts has endeared them to that art-loving capital. A grand opera or a good play is rarely presented in Munich without the presence of some member of the royal family. One of the princes often takes his place among the violins at the opera-house. The extravagance of King Otto, who had a mania for building palaces almost on the scale of Louis XIV., would have ruined Bavaria if it had not been arrested in time. Enormous debts were left by the late King.

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The Georgian Bay Canal

The Canadian Government has obtained from Parliament a grant of money to meet the expense of an accurate survey of the route of the proposed ship canal from Georgian Bay to tide-water at Montreal, by way of the French and Ottawa Rivers. This question has been agitated in Canada for nearly half a century, but it has now assumed a new phase by reason of the intention of Sir Wilfrid Laurier and his Cabinet to construct the canal as a government work, provided the report of the engineers is convincing as to its feasibility. A glance at the map shows the superior advantages of the route. Beginning at the French River, in the northwestern part of Georgian Bay, it proceeds through that river to Lake Nipissing, thence by way of the Mattawa River to the Ottawa River, thence to Montreal. It is interesting to note that the distance from Chicago to Atlantic tide-water by the Georgian Bay route is only 980 miles, while it is 1,380 miles by the St. Lawrence route and 1,415 miles by way of the Erie Canal. There are only about 30 miles of excavating required on the Georgian Bay route, while the St. Lawrence route requires 72 miles and the Erie Canal 352 miles. The Georgian Bay route is four days shorter than the Erie, and one and a half days shorter than the St. Lawrence. The opinions of experts differ very little as to these figures.

Political Issues

II.—The Candidates

The American people are called upon to choose between two candidates for the Presidency in the approaching election; what does the country know about them? From "Who's Who in America" we reprint the following biographies. Other candidates we disregard, since the only real choice in this election is between Mr. Parker and Mr. Roosevelt:

MR. PARKER was born in Cortland, New York, in 1852. After being admitted to the bar, for which he was prepared in the Albany Law School, he practiced in Kingston, and in 1877 was made Surrogate of Ulster County. This position he held until 1885. In the campaign of 1884 he was chosen a delegate to the Democratic National Convention, and in 1885 was elected Chairman of the Democratic State Executive Committee. In the same year he was tendered the office of First Assistant Postmaster-General by President Cleveland. Since 1885 he has been judge of the Supreme Court, first a member of the Court of Appeals, next of the general term, and, from 1896, of the Appellate division. His home is at Esopus, New York.

MR. ROOSEVELT was born in New York in 1858. Two years after his graduation from Harvard he was elected to the New York Legislature; at the end of his term was sent as a delegate to the National Republican Convention; for two years he lived on a ranch in North Dakota; and since that time has filled successively offices of National Civil Service Commissioner, President of the New York Police Board, Assistant Secretary of the Navy, Lieutenant-Colonel of the First United States Cavalry Volunteers, Vice-President of the United States, and, upon the death of Mr. McKinley, of President. Eight books, including the "Winning of the West," the Lives of Thomas Hart Benton and Gouverneur Morris, and "American Ideals and Other Essays," have come from his pen.

Both Mr. Parker and Mr. Roosevelt are communicants in a Christian Church; both are honored as men of personal probity and integrity by their friends and neighbors; both are men of family, who personally and socially are worthy of the respect which is spontaneously accorded to them wherever they are known.

Comparing their biographies, and adding to them some estimates from public sources, it appears that Mr. Parker has had seventeen years of ex-

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perience as Judge, part of the time in the highest court of his State; that he has filled his judicial office creditably; that he has also had some experience in campaign politics, having directed successfully the political campaign in 1885, in which David B. Hill was elected Governor of the State of New York; and that he is well and widely known in his State both as a Democrat who has always been loyal to his party, and as a Judge who has always been loyal to his judicial office. Presumably he is more familiar with legal precedents and principles than is Mr. Roosevelt, and perhaps as familiar with party management.

But he has had no experience in either the executive, administrative, or legislative departments of government; prior to his candidacy for the Presidency he was not known outside his own State, nor widely in his State outside of the legal profession; and the public has no reason to suppose that he has any special familiarity with the different sections of the country, the different currents of National public sentiment, or the questions, other than those which are legal and constitutional, on which the country is divided in opinion. Either because he is naturally reticent, or because he thinks that propriety requires that a judge should not take an active part in political discussions—an opinion which The Outlook believes is well founded—his convictions on public questions have never been publicly expressed. Even so intimate a friend as David B. Hill declared in the St. Louis Convention that he had never heard Mr. Parker express any opinion on the question of the currency, which for a time threatened permanently to disrupt the Democratic party; his opinion on the question of the Philippines was expressed in his speech of acceptance in such terms that his party managers were not able to agree as to his meaning until he had supplemented his speech by a published letter; his opinion respecting the proper legislative treatment of the protective system is still in doubt; and his general statement that the common law furnishes adequate remedies for the real or supposed evils of monopolies leaves his own followers uncertain respecting the course which he would advise in dealing with the trusts. In short, neither the political ability nor the political convictions of Mr. Parker are generally known to the country. No man so little known outside his own State has been called to the Presidency since Franklin Pierce; no man with so little political experience since General Grant. The Independent who votes for Mr. Parker must do so either because he has confidence in the men who know Mr. Parker and stand sponsor for him; or because he believes that any tried and honored citizen of the United States is competent to fill the office of President; or because in the present crisis he prefers an uncertainty to the alternative certainty which is offered to him.

For Mr. Roosevelt is not unknown. Born and bred in New York, educated in New England, spending some of the formative years of his life in acquiring physical vigor in the West, and gaining sympathetic acquaintance with the South through the influence and teachings of a Southern mother, Mr. Roosevelt has had unusual opportunity for acquainting himself with the needs and the opinions of every section of the country. Always a Republican, but always an independent Republican, he has had unusual opportunity for acquainting himself with the opinions of all factions in his party. A popular writer on American historical subjects, he has made himself familiar with the early history of the country, its pioneers and its military leaders, its great statesmen, and its popular currents of opinion. Legislator, Civil Service Commissioner, Police Commissioner, Assistant Secretary of War, Lieutenant-Colonel in the field, Governor of the State of New York, and President of the United States, and active wherever he has been, he has had unusual opportunity for acquiring experience in legislative counsels, in executive direction, and in both civil and military administration—in short, in every department of government except the judicial. Interested in all public questions, taking part in all public debates, never reticent, always outspoken, his views on every public question have been definitely formed and explicitly stated, and are or

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easily may be known by all men. No man called to the Presidency in the present generation has had a more varied political experience or a more extended acquaintance with the different sections of the country, no man has expressed himself more freely and explicitly on all public issues, and no man, except General Grant, has been more widely known prior to his nomination.

All this might be true, and yet Mr. Roosevelt might not be the man whom the independent voter would choose for the President of the United States. He might be socially and morally worthy of regard, might have familiarity with all sections of the country and all factions in his party, might have that acquaintance with the past history of his Nation which wide reading affords and that acquaintance with its present conditions which varied experience in public life affords, and yet not have the qualities which fit him to be the Nation's chief executive. What are his qualities? An active, outspoken, aggressive personality, he has made both ardent friends and bitter enemies. The judgment of his friends will not unnaturally be discounted by the independent voter. What is the judgment of his enemies? No reputable paper has been more bitterly hostile to Mr. Roosevelt's administration and to the policy which he believes in and is carrying out than the New York "Evening Post." For that reason we turn to its columns for an enemy's estimate of his character. We quote this editorial portrait in full, as we find it in a recent issue (August 29, 1904):

A longer catalogue of virtues has seldom been compiled than that with which Secretary Taft yesterday garnished his Montpelier eulogy of President Roosevelt. The President lacks pride of opinion, is amenable to reason, anxious to reach just conclusions, quick of apprehension, changes his opinions readily if the facts demand, believes in doing things, loves physical exercise, considers that brain and muscle were given for use, is an American, a patriot, loves his wife and children, sympathizes with labor and capital alike, hates shams, is anxious to avoid war. These traits, which most of us will be as ready as Secretary Taft to impute to Theodore Roosevelt, bring before the mind's eye an attractive personality, but do they make us exclaim, "Here is a man eminently fitted to be President of eighty million people"? They have no such effect. Such qualities as President Roosevelt possesses are not rare. Hundreds of thousands of men in the United States are modest, just, intelligent, energetic, lovers of their country, their wives and children, opposed to fraud, and anxious to live at peace with all men. But many of these have what President Roosevelt has not—namely, that noble old Roman virtue, *gravitas*. Honesty, intelligence, energy, willingness to discard untenable views, are not enough. All these are admirable in a President, if along with them we find wisdom, breadth of vision, depth of insight, and that nameless something that enables a man to keep all his faculties in thorough control. It was these qualities that made Washington and Lincoln leaders of men.

We shall not here discuss the question whether Mr. Roosevelt has the qualities which the "Evening Post" denies to him—wisdom, that is, ability to use his knowledge in noble service; breadth of vision, that is, ability to comprehend opinions which he does not share; depth of insight, that is, ability to perceive the moral principles which underlie all policies and by which all public questions should be ultimately determined; and self-control, that is, the power to keep himself in hand, especially in times of excitement. We should have thought that Mr. Roosevelt's varied career showed him to be eminent in these qualities, but that is a point on which we shall leave the readers of The Outlook to form their own judgment.

Leaving that judgment in abeyance for the moment, it would appear that the question to be determined at the approaching election, in so far as it is a personal one between two candidates, both of whom are men of irreproachable private character, is this: Shall we choose for our President one whose judicial experience has developed a naturally staid, conservative, and judicial temper, but who has had but a limited political experience, who is unfamiliar with the conditions of the country except through the reports of others, who is unknown beyond the boundaries of his State, and whose political convictions on most public questions are but little known even in the circle of his friends? or shall we choose a man who is personally familiar with all sections of the country, whose public utterances and

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public acts have made the entire country familiar with both his character and his convictions, whose historical scholarship has given him acquaintance with the political principles and traditions of the past, whose active service has given him experience in all departments of the government except the judicial, and whom a severe critic and bitter political enemy describes as a man of honesty, intelligence, energy, and open-mindedness?

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Facing One's Work

Vacations are over for most men and women, and work has begun again or will soon begin in home and school, in college, office, and workshop. The rest and change so essential to the highest and freest putting forth of individual energy and skill ought to be the prelude to a new and nobler chapter in the active life of all who read these words. It is of the first importance to keep the feeling for work and the interest in it fresh and keen; when interest declines and joy goes out of the doing of work, efficiency inevitably sinks to a lower level. To do the best work a man must be at his highest level of courage, energy, insight, faith; these are the qualities whence inspiration flows, and when they fade the vitality and individuality of what a man does with his brain or his hand are lowered as the heat is diminished by the sinking of the fire which produces it. To keep work fresh and individual a man must put his soul into it, saturate it with ideas, fertilize it by his imagination, keep it in closest relation with the life of his spirit. When work is detached from character and becomes simply an external activity, it drops to the level of mechanical execution and becomes a matter of routine instead of an outflowing of life; it loses its spiritual quality and becomes mere drudgery. In the long and often painful struggle to keep his work fresh and inspirational there are two habits which ought to be fostered with unremitting energy.

All men and women who are doing any kind of work ought to be unsparingly honest with themselves. Self-deceit is as prevalent as self-pity, and quite as demoralizing. It is fundamental honesty to face the facts about one's capacity and skill without flinching; to recognize one's limitations and shortcomings with clear eyes; it is mere justice to others to see in the harvest one gathers the seed one has sown.

There are hosts of men and women who never do any of these things. They charge every failure to circumstances; they lay their misfortunes at every door except the door where they ought to be laid; they hold everything and everybody responsible for their unsatisfied ambitions and unrealized hopes except the one person in whose weakness the explanation of the failure lies. There is no dishonor in failure if a man has done his best; but there is moral evasion and cowardice in not bearing frankly the burden of failure. Capable men and women fail sometimes because general conditions are against them; because the tide ebbs at the moment when it seemed to be coming in; because other men and women are not honest and efficient; but the vast majority of failures of all kinds are due to lack of foresight, of judgment, of self-denial, of hard work, on the part of those who fail. The organization of society is not ideal in any sense, and the world of to-day is not an easy place for high-minded men and women to live and work in; but it remains true that there is room and there are opportunities for the honorable success of the vast majority of those who put their hands to any kind of effort.

Success and failure lie, as a rule, in the man, not in his conditions. Every man ought to face this fact, and not delude himself with the oft-told tale of the unsuccessful that only the fortunate, the selfish, the hard, the unscrupulous, succeed. The brutal, the scheming, the dishonest, do secure, in some cases, a certain kind of success; but they never secure the highest prizes. To be unsuccessful is not evidence of superior fineness of soul and sensitiveness of nature; the finest and best are doing the work of the world with force and skill in every field. It sometimes happens that men and women of rare gifts are driven to the wall; but let a man beware how he seeks this

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consolation in his own failure; the chances are that he is deceiving himself. In this world a certain adjustment of gifts and energy to conditions is required, and ought to be required, since it is in this adjustment that what we call character is formed. If the artist in every department must face a harder training, a longer probation, than the man of affairs, let him bear in mind that his work is of a higher order; that the men who are to do it ought to be sifted like wheat; that training is severe in the exact degree in which the work for which it prepares is delicate, spiritual, and enduring.

There is no dishonor in failure, but there is always folly in shutting one's eyes to facts; and every man who fails owes it to himself to charge the responsibility straight home to his own lack of capacity, of force, of steadiness, of energy. It may be that he is the victim of conditions; it is probable that he is failing to reap because he failed to sow.

No man lives or works alone; the modern world is a vast workshop in which men and women are thrown into the closest relations; and every man is related not only to his own work, but to the work of others. It is a man's duty not only to hold himself responsible for the kind of reward his work brings him, but to work cheerfully and courageously. The atmosphere of the workroom is the effluence of the spirits of those who live and breathe in it, and the workman must not only attend skillfully to the matter in hand, but he must put hope and courage into the air of the room. The man of gallant nature does this by instinct. His impulse is always to lead the way, to face the danger, to make the path easier and safer for others. If he has fears, he keeps them to himself; if he is tempted to despair, he nerves himself to higher courage; if he is tired, discouraged, lonely, he seeks refuge in service for others. Every man who deserves to be called a man ought to consume his own smoke, to use a current phrase; the man who talks about his troubles, his private griefs, the coldness of the world, the lack of appreciation of superior natures and fine work, is, as a rule, a very weak man who is trying to conceal from himself his own lack of strength. A brave man is always a silent man concerning his own sufferings; a high-minded man is more concerned about others than about himself; a capable man is too much absorbed in what he is doing to think much about himself. When a man finds himself tempted to talk about himself and draw out the sympathy of others, let him beware lest he corrupt himself; for there is nothing which so soon or so completely devitalizes a man as self-pity. The strong suffers and gives no sound; he bears the burdens of life and is glad that he has the strength to bear them; he gives himself in work for those he loves, and rejoices that he can pour out his life as an offering for those who are dearer than life.

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A Paragraph in Search of a Father

The statement attributed to The Outlook that "the negro is really the most intelligent citizen of the South," which has been taking a journey through the Southern States by aid of the Southern press, was attributed by several of the exchanges to the Washington "Post." The Washington "Post," in answer to a request from us to inform us where in The Outlook this paragraph was to be found, sends us the following letter:

THE WASHINGTON POST CO.
Washington, D. C., September 12, 1904.

Editor Outlook:

My dear Sir—I have made careful inquiry, but cannot find that The Post ever printed anything of the nature referred to in your letter of August 12. If anything of the sort ever did appear, it must have been in the nature of a clipping from another paper. However, I am unable to trace it in any way. Very truly yours,

SCOTT C. BONE,
Managing Editor.

Who invented this paragraph, and why he invented it, we are at a loss to guess. It appears to be a fatherless waif, whom no newspaper is willing to acknowledge as its child, and which hereafter no reputable newspaper will adopt.

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Impressions of a Careless Traveler

Educational Institutions on the Pacific Coast

IN educational equipment California appears to be little, if at all, behind the older States of the Union. When one remembers that the State is practically but little more than half a century old, the development of its school system and its higher universities appears extraordinary. I had no opportunity to visit its public schools and see them in operation. I could judge of them only by the buildings in which they were housed; but I was privileged to visit, though briefly, and to see, though cursorily, its two chief universities, the University of California at Berkeley, the Leland Stanford Junior University at Palo Alto, and some other not less significant educational institutions.

The University of California is a part of the public school system of the State and is the dome which crowns its educational edifice. It is beautifully situated on the side of a hill overlooking the very attractive town of Berkeley, which it has indeed almost created, and which lies on the plain at its feet. Beyond are the peaks of the coast range, the waters of the bay, and in the distance, across the bay, the city of San Francisco. The buildings of this University are hardly worthy either of the State or of the campus on which they are placed; but new ones are in process of erection, and when the present plans are carried out, the University of California promises to present some specimens of novel architecture in a beautiful academic grove commanding an inspiring prospect. One of these newer buildings, just finished, deserves special mention. In the upper range of the campus nature had made an amphitheater of which in times past the college had taken advantage on special occasions. With no architecture but that of the trees, with no roof but that of the sky, and with, I believe, no seats but those furnished by the turf, this amphitheater served as a gathering-place for audiences too large for any of the academic halls. Where nature planned this amphitheater, art has now constructed one on the model of the great amphitheater in Athens. If the present plan shall ever be carried out, and the seats now formed of composition shall be faced with marble, the amphitheater, in the beauty of its design and the perfectness of its execution, will rival its Athenian prototype. Here upwards of fifteen thousand persons gathered to greet President Roosevelt on his recent trip to the Pacific coast. Here the Commencement exercises are to be held, and here from time to time great assemblages of students and citizens are convened on special occasions. The mild climate and the sunny skies of California make possible for the University such a gathering-place, which would be perilous to health and rarely available for use at Cornell, Princeton, Yale, or Harvard.

There are no formal religious exercises in connection with this University. I was told that the Constitution of California prohibits any recognition of religion in her public schools, though I have not seen the provision and do not vouch for the accuracy of this interpretation of it. This lack of any formal recognition of religion appears to me a serious defect in our State universities, and one which a larger catholicity and a wiser policy, it is to be hoped, will in time correct. There is a large and efficient Young Men's Christian Association, but while its existence provides some religious opportunities for the students, neither it nor the religious life to which it ministers has any official recognition by the University as an institution. There is very good reason why there should never be any form of compulsory religious worship or instruction in a university maintained by the State; but I do not see why a university should not recognize the fact that a majority, or at least a considerable number, of its mem-

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bers appreciate the value and need of the religious impulse in their life; no reason why it should not provide a building for religious uses, somewhat akin to the Phillips Brooks House at Harvard or the Dwight Hall at Yale, with an adequate and worthy chapel attached to it where religious services might be carried on by the voluntary work of the students themselves under the supervision of the President, and in which a Jewish service might be held on Saturday for Jewish students, a Roman Catholic service at appropriate times for Roman Catholic students, a Protestant service under the guidance and direction of ministers of Protestant faith. In other words, the time will come when the State will recognize religion without recognizing any definite form of religion in its educational institutions, and will provide for the expression of reverence and faith and hope and love, leaving the worshipers to adopt such mode of expression as they themselves may choose in a spirit of harmonious and mutual self-respect.

Generally, colleges grow, and their buildings show both the advantages and the disadvantages of the gradual process involved in their evolution. The different buildings which occupy the campus have usually been constructed at different periods by different architects, and in many cases it seems as though each architect had endeavored to show his originality in making his own building depart as far as possible from the type of the buildings which surround it. It would be difficult for a grotesque imagination to construct a more heterogeneous architectural combination than is presented to the visitor who walks through the otherwise beautiful campus of Harvard University. There are, so far as I know, only three universities in the country which furnish exception to this rule of architectural heterogeneity. They are the University of Virginia at Charlottesville, Washington University at St. Louis, and Leland Stanford Junior University at Palo Alto in California.

Palo Alto is a town of some size, which presents rather a village than a town aspect, and is situated upon a perfectly level plain about an hour and a half's railroad ride south from San Francisco. The University, which might be called the mother of this town, has been built in one generation, under one supervision, and, I believe, in realization of the ideal of one architect, whose plans, however, have been somewhat interfered with by Mrs. Stanford's tastes or whims. Photography has made the American public familiar with the structure and appearance of this University, with its arcades surrounding the two quadrangles, its great but rather too heavy arch, affording an approach, and its over-elaborate and ornate chapel. The latter appears to me, as I think it does to most visitors, somewhat discordant with the general harmony of the buildings to which it is attached, and of which it is a constituent part. It is a memorial chapel to the father, as the University is a memorial university to the son. Love has been lavished in the interior decorations of this chapel. It would seem as though whatever beauties Mrs. Stanford had seen abroad she wished to bring here, and make the expression of her reverence toward God and her love toward her husband and her child. The result, however, is a church not truly beautiful, because it is too full of unharmonizing beauties. Religious service is held in this chapel on every Sunday, attendance being wholly optional. The chaplain, it is evident, has won the esteem and affection of the students. I suspect, however, that the acoustic qualities of the room make preaching a difficult problem. The University seems to be also—though the reader must bear in mind that this is only an impression—rather a school of technology than a true university. The fact that it is without any department of philosophy seemed to me a very significant fact. The standards of scholarship in both Leland Stanford Junior University and the University of California do not materially differ from those of the great universities in the Middle West and on the Atlantic coast. It was my privilege to address wholly voluntary meetings of the students at both universities, and certainly no speaker could ask for a warmer welcome, more attentive auditors, or a more recep-

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tive and enthusiastic response. Both universities are coeducational. I was told that the number of women applicants to Leland Stanford Junior was becoming so large that the authorities had been compelled to put a limit upon the number that they would receive, lest the girls should practically crowd out the boys.

Mills College for Young Women was established in 1865, by Dr. Cyrus T. Mills and his wife, returned missionaries, who had been compelled to give up their foreign missionary work on account of their health. Mills College occupies one hundred and fifty acres of beautiful wooded grounds in the vicinity of Oakland. Inspired by the same Christian spirit that inspired the founding of Mount Holyoke, seeking to secure for the young women of California the same opportunities for the broader culture and the higher education furnished to Eastern women by Wellesley, Smith, Vassar, and Bryn Mawr, Mills College, though it lacks the endowment of some of the older Eastern colleges, has proved itself worthy to be classed with them. While I was there, the trustees resolved upon undertaking to secure for it a million-dollar endowment, and, large as the undertaking is, if the text is still true, "According to your faith be it unto you," they will accomplish their purpose. The College has done very little of what is called "begging." The service it has rendered and the success it has achieved have spoken for it. One of the most beautiful features of its very attractive grounds is a mission bell tower, furnished with a chime of bells, just completed and dedicated—a chime which one who has met and talked with Mrs. Mills for half an hour may be sure will carry upon their tongues Tennyson's message, and will "Ring out the old, ring in the new."

A striking illustration of the power of Americans to adapt old institutions to new conditions is afforded by the Thacher School in the Ojai Valley. This valley lies about midway between Los Angeles and Santa Barbara, but, at a guess, twenty-odd miles from the sea. It forms an amphitheater between the surrounding hills; these rise from foothills in the foreground to mountains four or five thousand feet above the sea in the background. At the base of one of these foothills, at the head of the valley, is situated the Thacher School. Some fifteen years ago, a son of Professor Thacher, of Yale, came here with an invalid brother, and, yielding to the pertinacious request of a friend in the East, took first one and then another boy to care for. Out of this little beginning has grown what might be described as a camp school among the mountains. It is impossible for one in a visit of three or four days to form any real judgment respecting the standard of scholarship in a school. Of this I could judge only from the personnel of the teachers whom it was our pleasure to meet, and from the reputation of the principal and his brother, who have inherited from their father that good name whlch is said by the Book of Proverbs to be chosen rather than riches. It was easy to discern the fact that the standard of manly character is of the the highest, though the school, being wholly free from denominational control, has not yet, any more than other similar undenominational schools, solved the problem of how to furnish spiritual development without any sectarian formularies. What distinguishes the school from schools of equal standing and character in the East is its *quasi* camp-like character. The boys gather for their social hour in the evening around a great open fire in a rustic room. Of the thirty-six boys, thirty own each his horse, which he stables, feeds, curries, and cares for himself. On these horses the boys take long excursions up the trails on the mountains, often camping out over night. They are organized as a cavalry company, and we witnessed one noon, first a cavalry drill, and then, what interested me still more, a game of tag on horseback. It was delightful to see how the horse and the rider understood each other, how the horse answered the slightest touch of the bit with a sagacity and readiness almost equal to that of his master. It was quite as interesting a specimen of horseback rid-

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ing as any that the Wild West Show furnishes, and far more natural and humane.

There are a number of smaller colleges under denominational direction, though, so far as I could judge, denominational in no other sense. It is a distinct disadvantage of our American system that it is difficult to maintain an educational organization, be it school or college, and have it pervaded by a Christian atmosphere, without having it under some Church, and that means under some denomination. I believe that every one of the larger denominations in the State has its college. I visited only one—Pomona College at Claremont. It takes its name from the town where it was originally planted, though it has now removed to better quarters in a neighboring town. It is under Congregational auspices. As one faced the audience of students which filled the chapel so full that enlargement of the building is already required and planned for, learned that its faculty already includes twenty-three instructors, and remembered that this college is only sixteen years old, one realized that educational institutions grow as rapidly in Southern California as grape-vines and orange-trees. Nor could one expect to find in an Eastern college a more thoughtful audience, nor from the audience a more eager and appreciative listening, than was found and accorded to the speaker by the students at Claremont.

The account of the educational institutions which we were privileged to visit would be incomplete without a mention of the Smith cottages, though Mrs. Smith, who has founded and maintains them, would resent their being classified under the title of "institutions." She and her husband are among the happily increasing number of wealthy people in America who believe that the chiefest luxury which wealth brings is the pleasure of using it for the happiness of others, instead of leaving that delight to their heirs and assigns after they are dead. She also believes, in common doubtless with unnumbered thousands of mothers, that the home is the foundation of both State and Church, that, indeed, all civilization is based upon it and all true life emanates from it, and that no institution, however royally endowed and wisely administered, can take the place of the home. Her attitude of mind is, I should say, the exact antipodes of that which proposes to eliminate the home by the substitution of co-operative house-keeping for home-keeping, and expert nursing for the mothering of children. Her husband is the treasurer, and furnishes the funds which she administers. With them she has purchased a park of considerable size, and is building in it a group of cottages, one at a time. Each cottage is a home for ten girls, under the charge of a house-mother. The mother has an income, as any other mother might have. Out of it she pays the expenses of the home, as any other mother might pay them. The children are her children. If they wish to play with the children of another cottage they ask permission, as children would ask their mother. They all go to the public schools, as other children go. The only thing they do in common is to attend together the Congregational church and the Congregational Sunday-school, in the latter taking their place according to age and capacity, as do other children. In short, there is nothing in any community of hours, of food, of dress, or of discipline, to suggest an institution. When they get old enough to go out and earn their daily living, they go as other children do, and if they wish still to remain at home and pay what they can toward the home expenses, they do so, as do other children. To avoid all suggestion of institutionalism, one cottage has been erected which is not a home, and in which the trustees, in whose hands the whole property is vested, have their occasional meetings. No institutional business is allowed to intrude upon the homes. If there is in this or in any other country any other such attempt to provide a true home life and home atmosphere for homeless children, I should be glad if any one who knows of it would give me a brief account of it for the readers of The Outlook.

L. A.

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A Japanese Naval Base[1]

By George Kennan

Special Correspondent for The Outlook in the Far East

This is the fifth article growing out of Mr. Kennan's experiences during the interesting trip on the transport Manshu-maru, arranged for foreign correspondents by the Japanese Government. It will be followed by two articles on Korea—partly based on personal observations in Korea during this trip and partly on an interview with the Japanese Premier about the important problems which the war has presented as to Japan's future policy in Korea. Other articles which Mr. Kennan is preparing to write deal with the Japanese Ministry (based on interviews with members of the Ministry); on Education in Japan; on Japanese Newspapers; on Religion in Japan; on the so-called Yellow Peril; and on the Problem of China. Our readers will be interested in the following expression of opinion taken from one of Mr. Kennan's letters: "Japan has been studying the art of war with all her soul for nearly ten years, and has given to it every power of a naturally acute mind, with intelligent forethought, careful 'prearrangement,' and practice, practice, practice, incessantly. I shall tell you in a later letter something about her methods on land, and the means by which her artillery has been brought up to its present high state of efficiency. There is no luck about her victories. They are the natural and inevitable result of education, organization, system, training, and patient, incessant practice."—THE EDITORS.

WHEN, after visiting the Russian prisoners at Matsuyama, we sailed on the 18th of June for Moji, there was a good deal of doubt as to our future movements. Admiral Bezobrazof's squadron from Vladivostok had just sunk a number of Japanese transports off the island of Oki, which lay directly in the line of our route from Moji to Sasebo, and if the Russian cruisers were still in that vicinity there was little probability that we should be permitted to leave the Inland Sea. Behind the batteries of Shimonoseki we were safe, but if we should go outside we might meet the fate of the Hitachi-maru and Sado-maru.

When we reached Moji, at the western outlet of the Inland Sea, on the morning of Sunday, June 19, we found the roadstead full of transports and merchant steamers, waiting, apparently, for further news from the Russian squadron. Some of them were bound for Nagasaki, some for Sasebo, and some for Korea and the front; but none of them dared to venture outside until the Vladivostok cruisers had gone back to their base or had been destroyed by the fleet of Admiral Kamimura. What news Captain Takarabe of the Manshu-maru received that morning I do not know, but at eight o'clock, after a detention of only two or three hours, we ran boldly out of the strait, under the escort and protection of a solitary torpedo-boat, and shaped a course for Sasebo.

Before we had gone far, we began to see, for the first time, unmistakable and tangible evidences of war. Four or five miles beyond Moji lay, half submerged, the unfortunate transport Sado-maru, which had been torpedoed by the Russian cruisers and left by them, in a sinking condition, thirty or forty miles off the coast. Fortunately, there was air enough in her uninjured compartments to keep her afloat, and after she had been deserted by all of her crew she was picked up by a Japanese coasting steamer and towed to the point where we saw her. She was evidently half full of water and very much "down by the head," but she already had a Japanese pumping-gang on board and was practically safe. The failure of the Russian cruisers to sink this transport was a fortunate thing for Japan, inasmuch as her cargo consisted almost wholly of railway materials from America, which could not quickly have been

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replaced and which were greatly needed in Korea and Manchuria. Another torpedo or a few more shots would have made her destruction certain, but the Russians in this war have done few things thoroughly and efficiently. Their carelessness in this case saved Japan many tens of thousands of dollars and perhaps weeks of time.

Two or three hours after leaving Moji we passed the place where the transport Hitachi-maru had been sunk by the Vladivostok squadron and where there were still traces of her in the shape of an empty boat floating awash, a few articles of furniture, and a quantity of miscellaneous wreckage. The Government of Japan has been severely censured for allowing a troop-laden transport like the Hitachi-maru to sail for the front without an armed convoy, but it seems to me that the condemnation is unjust and undeserved. The Japanese fleet is not large enough to patrol the home coast, convoy the transports that are leaving every day for the front, and at the same time maintain an effective blockade of Port Arthur. If it had attempted to protect every point of possible attack, it would not have been strong enough to assume the offensive anywhere, and it was wiser to take the chance of losing a transport or two in the Korea Strait than to run the risk of a possible defeat outside Port Arthur as a result of weakening the fleet there. The art of war consists largely in having a preponderant force at every point where the action is likely to be decisive, and in this Japan has never failed. She has lost two or three transports, but she has not yet lost a battle nor a naval engagement.

So far as Admiral Kamimura is concerned, sweeping condemnation is equally irrational and unfair. He has been censured, by certain thoughtless people in Tokyo, on account of his failure to intercept and strike the Vladivostok fleet before it could escape; but it is by no means an easy matter to overtake and force into battle a small and homogeneous squadron of fast cruisers like the Rurik, the Rossia, and the Gromovoi, even after they have actually been sighted. A stern chase is, proverbially, a long one; and if swift cruisers that do not wish to fight can succeed in keeping out of cannon range until night falls, or until they can hide themselves in an area of misty rain, they may escape from their pursuers under cover of darkness or fog. This is what happened in Korea Strait after the destruction of the Hitachi-maru, and inasmuch as atmospheric conditions are beyond human control, a naval commander who fails to find his enemy in weather that limits his vision to a radius of half a mile is not necessarily negligent or incompetent. Admiral Kamimura is a brave and capable officer, and if luck favors him, as it has thus far favored his enemy, the Vladivostok pitcher will go to the Japanese well once too often.

Early in the afternoon, on the day of our departure from Moji, we received by wireless telegraphy the following invitation to dinner from Vice-Admiral Sameshima, Commandant of the Sasebo Naval Base:

Sasebo, Sunday afternoon.

Come to dinner with me at 7:30. Dress clothes and cards of invitation unnecessary.

SAMESHIMA.

None of us, I think, had ever before received through the air, at a distance of fifty or sixty miles, a communication of this kind; and as I read it on the bulletin-board, and then looked ahead to the horizon line of the blue, tranquil sea, I could hardly make myself believe that from beyond that horizon line—from a point far below the curvature of the earth—this cordial invitation had come in pulsating waves of ethereal energy that could be translated into English words.

About four o'clock in the afternoon we caught sight of the blue, picturesque mountains of Sasebo ahead, and three-quarters of an hour later we steamed through a narrow, strongly fortified strait into a spacious and perfectly sheltered bay, which seemed to ramify and run back into the hills in a dozen deep coves and inlets, but which did not show anywhere a sign, or an indication, of anything that needed the protection of the menacing batteries of heavy guns at the entrance. The steep slopes of the en-

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circling hills were cut into hundreds of green and gold terraces of potatoes and ripening wheat; there were villages of brownish houses with pyramidal thatched roofs at the mouths of nearly all the ravines; and a few sharp-bowed, high-sterned junks, with sails of yellow matting hanging in narrow strips from their long, horizontal yards, drifted lazily across the bay before a light southerly breeze; but of warehouses, of machine-shops, of shipping, or of the busy life and activity of a great naval base, there was not even a suggestion.

While I was sweeping the shore ahead with my glass, and wondering where Sasebo could be, the Manshu-maru turned sharply to port, and, running around a high, projecting headland, gave us a view into a deep, pocket-shaped harbor which lay almost parallel with the outer bay, but was separated from it by a long tongue of mountainous land which served as a screen. In this inner harbor, which was perhaps two miles in length by three-quarters of a mile in width, there were life and movement enough to meet all my anticipations. The semicircular strip of sloping land between the mountains and the head of the cove was covered with brick storehouses, foundries, machine-shops, and immense heaps of coal; twenty large transports, with smoking funnels, were lying at anchor near the middle of the harbor; scores of tugs and steam launches were rushing to and fro, carrying orders, or towing big, flat barges loaded with coal, ammunition, and supplies; long strings of signal flags were hanging in the rigging of transports that had just arrived from the front; sailors on the bridge-roofs of other transports were wigwagging to one another, or to signal stations on the slopes of the hills; and the shrill whistles of the launches and tugs, the rattle and clank of steam winches, the cries of sailors, and the faint clatter of multitudinous hammers in the machine-shops and boiler-shops on shore, gave audible emphasis to the impressions of energy, industry, and strenuous activity received through the eye.

We steamed slowly into the crowded harbor and anchored, a quarter of a mile out, between a large hospital steamer, with a broad green stripe around her white sides, and a dark-gray ammunition boat which had just returned from the front and was taking on board a fresh supply of shells, mechanical mines, Whitehead torpedoes, and high explosives for Admiral Togo's fleet. The Manshu-maru had hardly had time to swing to her anchor when a trim steam launch with the number "36" painted in white on her black funnel brought off to us two or three officers of Admiral Sameshima's staff, who welcomed us to Sasebo, and renewed the invitation to dinner that had been sent to us by wireless telegraph three or four hours before. In response to this invitation, we all went ashore at seven o'clock and walked up the sloping mountain side to the large building of the Naval Officers' Club, where elaborate arrangements had been made for our reception and entertainment. The work of the great naval base, including the support and maintenance of Admiral Togo's fleet and the loading and provisioning of half a hundred transports, might be arduous and engrossing; but the officers of Admiral Sameshima's staff, after attending to it all, seemed to have plenty of time left for the courtesies and amenities of social life. The dining-room was draped with Japanese, American, and European flags; the tables were tastefully decorated with cut flowers, dwarf maples, and delicate fern fronds from the woods; the trees in the spacious garden were hung full of paper lanterns, which lighted up the dark foliage with a soft, variegated glow of color; half a dozen bonfires, burning in large, cup-shaped iron cages four feet above the ground, tinged faintly with orange the slender jet of a high fountain of cool water from the mountains; and in a sort of arbor, or pergola, decked with flags and overgrown by vines, an excellent naval band played European and Japanese airs at intervals throughout the dinner. After Admiral Sameshima had proposed the health of his guests, and Marquis Kuroda had responded for the passengers of the Manshu-maru, we all gave three "banzais" for our host, for the members of his

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staff, and for the navy of Japan, and then trooped out into the garden, where, in the blended radiance of bonfires, colored lanterns, and incandescent electric lights, we sat for two or three hours, talking of England, America, and the war. Nearly half the Japanese officers spoke English, and as most of them had lived or traveled in Great Britain or the United States, we had many topics of conversation in common.

I was impressed at Sasebo, as I had been before at Kure and Yetajima, by the seriousness and sobriety of the Japanese naval officers' talk, as compared with that of men of the same class and profession in St. Petersburg and on the Pacific coast of Asia. Japanese officers, so far as I have had an opportunity to observe, never drink enough to become flushed or excited; never talk foolishly or at random; and never refer to women, drinking bouts, or past "sprees." In their profession they are studious, observant, and attentive to duty, and in their general attitude toward life they are serious and thoughtful. If they ever give themselves up to frivolous dissipation, there is no trace of it in their talk or behavior either at social reunions or in the Japanese tea-houses where so many foreigners let themselves go. That there are serious, thoughtful, temperate, and studious men in the Russian navy I do not doubt; but, so far as my experience qualifies me to judge, they are in a minority, while in Japan they seem to make up the whole naval force. The contrast is perhaps deserving of notice, for the reason that in war, as in most other pursuits of life, success is the product of character, capacity, and preparation. When we returned to the Manshu-maru that night, we were all favorably impressed, I think, by the modesty, thoughtfulness, and dignity of Admiral Sameshima's officers, and when, on the following morning, we began our inspection of the naval base, we were equally impressed by their professional skill and ability, as shown in the perfection of the organization that they have created.

Since the beginning of the present war Sasebo has been the supplying and distributing base for a fleet of more than a hundred battle-ships, cruisers, torpedo-boats, and destroyers, and for a naval force of at least ten thousand men. It has had to keep all these warships supplied with coal, ammunition, torpedoes, and mines; to hold itself in readiness to furnish materials for such defensive works as the great Yentoa Bay boom; to provide and equip blocking steamers, and fill their holds with Portland cement or stone; to furnish divers, diving apparatus, pumps, cranes, hoisting machinery, and submarine electric lights for the great work of raising and refloating the Russian cruiser Variag at Chemulpo; to dock and repair vessels injured by collision, or by the explosion of mines at the front; to repair or replace worn-out or broken parts of pumps, steam-engines, steering-gear, and guns; and, finally, to keep a force of ten thousand men adequately supplied with food, clothing, and bedding, as well as to take charge of their mail, and forward to them thousands of packages from relatives and friends in all parts of Japan. This would certainly seem to be work enough fully to occupy all the time of Admiral Sameshima and his accomplished staff; but in addition to this they are constructing an immense new dry-dock, 570 feet in length, and are superintending the current daily work of 4,500 men in at least a dozen foundries and machine-shops, and in more than thirty large storehouses and magazines.

The successful accomplishment of these multifarious tasks would be in the highest degree creditable even if it involved incessant effort and intense nervous and mental strain; but the work seems to be done with perfect ease, and the officers who superintend it are so far from being crowded or rushed that they can give painstaking attention and thought not only to the decoration of gardens, dining-rooms, and tables, for the entertainment of an excursion party, but to details of even less importance. For example: At the head of the main saloon of the Manshu-maru there was a place for an upright piano. It was vacant, and, so far as I know, there had never been an instrument of that kind on the ship; but somewhere between

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Yokosuka and Sasebo it apparently occurred to Captain Takarabe that a piano would add materially to the pleasure of the passengers, and the necessary requisition was made, by telegraph, upon the Sasebo naval base. When we reached that proximate destination, the harbor was "boiling"—as the Russians would say—with activity. Wounded soldiers from the front were being transferred to barges from the hospital ship Kobe-maru; floating cranes were hoisting ammunition, torpedoes, and mines on board the Kasuga-maru; twenty transports were waiting for loads, or were already taking in supplies of provisions, water, and coal; dozens of steam launches and tugs were rushing to and fro with curling waves of foam at their bows; and on land, as well as in the harbor, thousands of men were actively engaged in work that was of the most urgent and vital importance. Is there any other naval base in the world where, at such a time and in such circumstances, the authorities would take the trouble to look up a piano for an excursion steamer going to the front? If, when General Shafter was loading his transports and embarking his army at Tampa, he had been asked to provide a piano for the steamer that was to take the correspondents to Santiago, he would probably have replied, with characteristic vigor of statement, "Damn your pianos! We've got no time to look up pianos for newspaper men and excursionists." But the Japanese officers at the naval base of Sasebo *had* time, not only to look up a piano, but to find one that matched perfectly in color the woodwork of the saloon in which it was to stand; and at eight o'clock on the morning after our arrival it was brought off in a steam launch and put on board so quietly and noiselessly that I don't think half a dozen of the war correspondents even noticed it.

This story of a piano may seem to have little intrinsic importance; but as an illustration of Japanese methods and character it strikes me as extremely significant. The system and the organization of the Japanese are so perfect and so efficient that they have plenty of time to do, and to do well, anything that is worth doing at all. In every field of activity that has yet come under my observation, prevision, prearrangement, and careful attention to details have been equally apparent. A number of my personal correspondents in America have asked me, "What is the secret of the Japanese successes? Why do they win all their battles?" I might reply cryptically that they succeed because they have plenty of time to look up pianos; but I shall be better understood, perhaps, if I say, as I have said in substance several times before, that they win battles because they carefully consider every possible difficulty or contingency in advance; devise a suitable method of dealing with it; co-ordinate that method with a hundred others, so as to form a coherent and articulated system; and then practice that system, day after day, and week after week, until it becomes as familiar to them as the taking off and putting on of their clothes. Then the work goes easily and smoothly, and the workers have plenty of time not only to look ahead and devise new methods for new difficulties, but even to decorate dining-tables and furnish pianos on demand.

The importance of Sasebo as a naval base may be inferred from the facts that, at the beginning of the war, its harbor held no less than two hundred war-ships and transports, in complete readiness for action, and that for a considerable time thereafter it supplied the combined Japanese fleet with from 500 to 1,500 tons of stuff per day, not including either water or coal. As this material did not originate at Sasebo, but was brought there from Kure, Moji, Nagasaki, and other parts of Japan, the average daily turn-over—that is, the total amount of incoming and outgoing stuff—often amounted to 3,000 tons every twenty-four hours. This, of course, did not include supplies for the armies in the field, which were forwarded from the military base at Ujina. The single item of water for the naval transports amounts to 1,800 tons per day, and, in order to supply it promptly and in sufficient quantities, the Sasebo naval base has a fleet of thirty-four tank-boats, which are equipped with powerful pumps

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and which have a capacity of from thirty to two hundred and eighty tons each. The amounts of coal and ammunition consumed vary, of course, from time to time, in accordance with the fleet's varying activity; but the total shipments from Sasebo, including ammunition, naval supplies, and coal and water for both war-ships and transports, do not fall much short of 7,000 tons per day. Most of this material is handled twice, and a considerable part of the coal is packed in seventy-five-pound matting packages, in order to facilitate the transference of it to the war-ships at sea.

The reception and transshipment of 7,000 tons of stuff per day, including incidental storage, packing, selection, and distribution, is in itself a work of great magnitude; but it is only a part of the multifarious activity of the Sasebo naval base. When we went ashore, on the morning after our arrival, and walked through twenty-eight foundries, machine-shops, blacksmith-shops, arsenals, and big naval storehouses, we began to get something like an adequate idea of Japanese preparations for war on a large scale.

We were taken first to the two dry-docks, which were respectively 260 and 443 feet in length, and which were provided with force-pumps capable of throwing out 2,000 and 6,000 tons of water per hour. The larger one, which will admit any vessel in the Japanese navy except the first-class cruiser Asama, was empty; but in the smaller one there was a torpedo-boat which had been injured by an accidental collision off Port Arthur. The Japanese have, at the headquarters of their fleet in the Elliot Islands, a large repair steamer, fitted up with all necessary tools and appliances for making slight repairs to injured ships; but in cases of serious damage to the hull of a vessel, recourse is had to the dry-docks of Yokosuka, Kure, and Sasebo. It is a significant fact that in none of these places did we find anything larger than a torpedo-boat. The Japanese have lost four or five vessels, large and small, by collision, or by contact with mechanical mines; but none of their other ships have sustained injuries serious enough to necessitate docking. The officers at Sasebo have nearly completed a new dry-dock which will have a length of 570 feet, and which will take the largest ships in their navy. When it is ready for use, the Japanese will be able, in case of necessity, to repair, in the dry-docks of Yokosuka, Kure, and Sasebo, five or six large vessels at the same time.

After we had inspected the docks and pumping-stations, we walked through a big stone-crushing plant, and then through a series of foundries, machine-shops, and blacksmith-shops, devoted to the making of small castings and to the manufacture or repair of engines, pumps, propellers, cranks, shafts, and steam-fittings generally. In the vacant spaces between the buildings were neatly piled or stored anchors, chains, ventilating funnels, collapsible boats, diving armor, buoys, ship-timber, and all sorts of material that did not need shelter, while in the same vicinity were a number of carpenter-shops devoted to the manufacture of molds, models, packing-boxes, and other small articles or fittings of wood. In a long building near the water were the naval post-office and the office for the receipt and forwarding of private gifts and packages to the ten thousand officers and bluejackets of the combined fleets. In this building the movements of all the war-ships and transports were observed and recorded, and the letters and packages for each of them were sent to the proper destination. All of the popular gifts, I noticed, had been neatly repacked—generally in matting-bags or lashings of rice-straw—and every one bore a little wooden tag on which had been inscribed the name of the addressee and of his ship. Everything was in perfect order, and in the post-office a compartment had already been labeled for the mail of the Manshu-maru. Wherever we might go, that mail would be forwarded to us.

As I walked through these buildings, looking everywhere for something that had been neglected, or that might be improved, but finding nothing, I remembered the disorder and confusion of Tampa, Daiquiri, and Siboney, and wondered whether, in spite of our vaunted civilization and our assumed ability to

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deal with material things in an efficient and practical way, we might not profitably take a few lessons from Japan. She has been our pupil, and we may claim all due credit for our instruction, but in the art of making war she has bettered our teaching and improved upon our methods.

From the naval post-office we went to the warehouses for commissary and quartermaster's stores, and spent an hour and a half or two hours in going through a series of ten or twelve large brick buildings filled with ships' furnishings, steel safes, lanterns, lubricating oil, cooking and washing utensils, clothing, boots and shoes, blankets, Kansas City tinned beef, pearl barley in bags, hard bread, rice, potatoes, and scores of other things eaten, worn, or used by the officers and men of the fleet. The storehouses were in perfect order; everything was neatly packed; clothing and provisions were carefully assorted, so that any required article could be found and shipped in any quantity at a moment's notice. Every storehouse, every room, every pile, and every box or package bore a label to indicate the nature of its contents, and I should be willing to wager a large sum that the officers of the Sasebo naval base could go to those storehouses at midnight, without a lantern, and, in pitch darkness, fill a requisition for a thousand tons of assorted cargo, from steel safes, lubricating oil, and cooking utensils to tinned beef, bottled lemonade, and lead-pencils. It was the most perfect practical illustration that I have ever seen of order, system, and arrangement.

It is the popular impression in America that Japanese soldiers and sailors live wholly, or largely, upon rice; but, so far at least as the bluejackets are concerned, the impression is erroneous. The naval ration is a most generous one, and includes bread, meat or fish, rice, barley, and potatoes. In order to supply the fleet with bread of good quality the officers of the Sasebo naval base have established a bread-making plant, with up-to-date machinery and appliances, which has a capacity of 20,000 pounds of fresh bread per day. This bread, if it were bought in the open market, or made by contract, would cost the navy three cents per pound. It is turned out by the naval bakery at a cost of only one and three-quarters cents. We were shown also through a lemonade-bottling plant, where the aerated lemonade that is so popular in Japan is made in large quantities for the refreshment of the sailors at the front.

I should like to describe briefly the naval clothing manufactory, where we saw a cutter with a broad-bladed hand-knife cutting fifty thicknesses of white cotton cloth for the backs of sailors' jackets; the repairing-house, where thirty or forty women were mending clothing for the fleet; the packing department, where blankets and clothing were squeezed into compact bales by a compressor, and where bread, potatoes, etc., were put into boxes, crates, nets, or matting bags, for shipment, and various other industries or departments connected with the equipment and maintenance of the fleet; but I am nearing the limit of my space and must leave unnoticed many things that are of interest in themselves, or that illustrate Japanese methods and economies.

From the storehouses we went to the naval arsenal, which was under the command and direction of Vice-Admiral Kamimura, and which contained immense quantities of shells, armor-piercing projectiles, Shimose powder, torpedoes, mines, and other destructive implements or agencies of war. There we saw also nearly the whole of the battery of the sunken Russian cruiser Variag, consisting of ten 6-inch quick-firing guns, ten Hotchkiss 3-pounders, seven 6-pounders, eight 12-pounders, and three or four Whitehead torpedoes with their launching-tubes. Although these guns had lain for three months under water, they were as good as new, and they had been so perfectly cleaned and polished by the Japanese workmen that they looked as if they had come fresh from the foundry. Some of the breech-blocks of the 6-inch quick-firers were missing, but they could be easily replaced when needed. Just at present the Japanese navy has big guns enough of its own manufacture, and more in reserve.

In one of the large rooms of the arse-

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nal I observed a rather noteworthy display of munitions of war taken from the Russian transport Manchuria, which was captured by the Japanese fleet while trying to run the blockade of Port Arthur. Her cargo, which was valued at 500,000 yen ($250,000), consisted of 6,259 shells, ranging in caliber from three-inch to eight-inch; a number of Maxim guns, with a large supply of ammunition; field-telegraph instruments and batteries; heliographic signaling apparatus; powder-cases; assorted hardware, and large quantities of naval and military stores. As the Japanese were not in immediate need of this captured material, they put it away in two or three large buildings of the arsenal; but in order that they might be able at any time to make selections from it, without search or the opening of boxes, they took a single sample of every article that the ship contained, assorted these samples by classes, and then displayed them, like specimens in a museum, on a large, slightly raised platform, so that the eye could take in at a glance the whole range of the heterogeneous cargo, from Maxim guns, shells, and heliographs to rat-tail files, screw-drivers, lead-pencils, and steel pens. The assortment, I noticed, contained samples even of the different varieties and makes of lead-pencils and pens, and of all the different sizes of letter-paper and envelopes. This classification and display of half a million yen worth of heterogeneous material was made, it will be observed, in time of war, when the officers of the Sasebo naval base were superintending the receipt and transshipment of seven thousand tons of stuff per day, besides constructing a big dry-dock and looking after the work of forty-five hundred men in more than thirty foundries, machine-shops, blacksmith-shops, and naval storehouses. Is it any wonder that the machinery of the Japanese military organization works smoothly, when Japanese officers have such an infinite capacity for taking present pains in order to lessen future labor?

As the matter of expenditures and financial resources is likely to be an important factor in the present war, it may be worth while to note that in the great naval manufactories of Kure and Sasebo the average wage of skilled workmen in the arsenals and shops is only sixty sen (thirty cents) per day; and as the working force is capable and industrious, the cost of war material manufactured at home is comparatively small.

Our interesting and instructive day at Sasebo ended with an inspection of the naval hospital, which, at the time of our visit, contained 305 patients, and had a working force of ten surgeons and seventy-seven nurses, under direction of Rear-Admiral Dr. Totsuka. The wards were all light, clean, and perfectly ventilated; the lacquered beds were furnished with spotless sheets, blankets, and pillows, and were protected by mosquito-nets; the operating-rooms were in a state of immaculate purity, and were provided with X-ray apparatus, photographic facilities, and everything in the shape of instruments that modern surgical science has devised; and in the room devoted to pathological and microscopical research I found an excellent library, containing the latest English, German, and American books upon bacteriology and cognate subjects.

Among the many things that I noticed with interest were light but strong splints made of hardened and perforated zinc; an ingeniously contrived body-case of canvas and bamboo, intended to be used in hoisting wounded men on board ship by means of a tackle; and a series of large bound books containing a complete photographic record of every noteworthy surgical case that had come into the hospital, as well as pictures to illustrate the effects of bullets, shrapnel, and high-explosive shells upon the human body.

I am not a specialist, and my judgment with regard to a hospital may, perhaps, have little value; but if I were stricken with fever or mangled by a shell, at the front, I am quite sure that I should ask to be sent to the Sasebo naval base, and should be as sure as a sick or wounded man ever can be of ultimate convalescence and recovery. It would be a satisfaction, at any rate, to feel that I was in a place where noth-

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ing is overlooked or neglected, where every possibility and contingency is foreseen, and where, as in the case of the famous painter's colors, everything is "mixed with brains."

Seoul, Korea.

Charles Wagner: A Personal Sketch

By Alvan F. Sanborn

The arrival in the United States last week of M. Charles Wagner lends immediate interest to the following personal appreciation and character sketch by Mr. Sanborn, who has been living near M. Wagner's residence in Brittany, and has had exceptional opportunities of knowing the author of "The Simple Life."—THE EDITORS.

WHEN Charles Wagner published "Jeunesse," in 1891, the students of the University and the thinking public at large were just beginning to react against the profound discouragement into which they had been cast by the dreary outcome of the Franco-Prussian War, primarily; and, secondarily, by the disillusionizing failure of science to accomplish what had been expected of it, and by the depressing influence of the negative and dilettante philosophies and of the pessimistic and materialistic literature on which they had been reared. Boulangism, which had threatened for a moment the integrity of the nation, was dead and already nearly forgotten. "The Republic," which had first astounded the civilized world by the ease with which it paid the Prussian war claims and by the celerity with which it reorganized the national life from top to bottom, had just astounded it a second time by carrying to a successful conclusion a great international exposition. Confidence in the national destiny was reviving and an era of new ideas and new emotions was dawning. Philosophical thought was entering on a relatively optimistic and idealistic phase, and a number of aggressive and magnetic personalities were summoning the hitherto skeptical and indifferent generation to effort along humanitarian lines, either in the name of a return to religion or as the best practical expedient for making life worth living in the absence of a theoretical solution of the problem of life.

M. Brunetière was asserting in his strenuous fashion the social value of authority. M. de Vogüé, by his revelations of the large humanitarianism of the Russian novelists, was firing the younger writers with a fine fervor for sacrifice, with the result that many of them were literally throwing themselves into the streets. Within the Catholic Church Count Albert de Mun was exerting a similar influence. Ernest Lavisse, in the University, was proving himself a sort of second Michelet as an inspirer of youth. Léon Bourgeois, the Minister of Public Instruction, was inculcating solidarity and endeavoring to humanize and modernize the curricula of the higher schools. The recently formed Association Générale des Étudiants was making its existence felt for good, its young President, Henri Bérenger (who has since degenerated, alas! into the most intolerant and violent of partisans) being untiring in proclaiming the pressing need of concerted moral effort.

The appearance of M. Wagner's "Jeunesse" marked in a signal manner the swinging into line of the Liberal Protestants for this campaign of concerted moral effort.

Since then, in spite of several drawbacks, the endeavor after a nobler morality has prospered bravely on the whole. In the University, Zoulet has been proclaiming the moral beauty of the ideal city. Outside the University, numerous "professors of energy," so called, have arisen—the littérateur, Paul Adam; the sociologist, Edmond Demoline; the journalist, Hugues Leroux; the politician, Pierre Baudin; the explorer, Gabriel Bonvalot; and the lamented monk, Père Didon, to name only a few. The

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farmers and peasants have been learning the economic value of an enlightened altruism. Co-operation and trade-unionism have become less selfish in certain respects, and the Universités Populaires[1] (dimly foreshadowed in 1891 by the Aide Fraternelle of M. Fallot and a number of similar groping experiments) have become a reality to be reckoned with. The efforts of Brunetière, De Vogüé, and De Mun have combined to produce a Neo-Catholicism with a lofty social ideal that is far from having spoken its last word. The Dreyfus affair and the persecution of the monastic orders (so deplorable in many respects) must be accorded the credit of having precipitated into the Church for good and all a number of distinguished men—Bourget, Coppée, and Lemaître, for instance—who had for some time been hesitating on its verge, and of having forced into aggressive moral action nearly all the literary Freethinkers, notably Zola, who had long passed for the most materialistic influence in France, and Anatole France, who had passed for the most hopelessly dilettante one.

Liberal Protestantism, though M. Wagner has produced nothing since "Jeunesse" at all comparable to that work, has nevertheless earned the right—thanks to his intellectual activity and to that of Sabatier, Secretan, the Pastor Comte, and others—to be dignified with the title of Neo-Protestantism.

Where so many forces have been operating concurrently towards the same result, it would be presumptuous, not to say invidious, to attribute the progress which has been achieved to any one of them to the exclusion of the others. It is only reasonable to suppose, however, and only fair to say, that the influence of the Catholic and the Freethinking propagandists of the doctrine of social responsibility has been more extended, if not more profound, than that of the Liberal Protestant propagandists, since the French people are divided, broadly speaking, into Catholics and Freethinkers, and since the Protestant influence is less in harmony than these—however effective it may prove in individual cases—with the traditional French spirit.

Charles Wagner's direct and personal influence on the moral and social development of his time has been relatively greater, probably, than that of the Neo-Protestantism of which he is an exponent. Not because his personality is superior to his system. Far from it. But because he has made it a point to participate vigorously in enterprises for moral and social improvement without questioning their origin. The broad and independent spirit that prompts him to welcome to the communion-table all who choose to come; to read from his pulpit selections from Æschylus, Shakespeare, Hugo, Goethe, Schiller, etc., and to conduct personally Sunday excursions into the country, prompts him also to seek out what is commendable in the most contradictory movements and to lend this commendable something his hearty support. He is an apostle of what he calls "*la concentration humaine*." He inculcates the duty and the beauty of union in well-doing. "My prime object," said he in conversation with me last spring, "is to interpret my time to itself. I would find, if may be, the common ground on which all my contemporaries may stand, and organize a 'trust,' so to speak, of all the beneficent forces. It has been given me to understand the extremes, and I endeavor, by my writings and acts, to bring these extremes together—to create a pacific atmosphere conducive to good works and a general spirit of forbearance. I would have all creeds and confessions work along their own lines in accordance with their own doctrines and even their own prejudices (if must be), but to a common end."

In pursuance of these tolerant principles, M. Wagner maintains close and cordial relations with Jews, Catholics, and Freethinkers, and shares their practical humanitarian and ethical undertakings. Indeed, certain of the Catholic bishops, who appreciate highly his studious avoidance of the sectarian and controversial in his addresses and writings, are among his most loyal admirers and friends. He was persuaded to the publication of his first book by the insist-

[1] The nearest French counterpart to our social settlements.

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ence of the persons who had listened to his ethical talks in the meetings of the various societies with which he thus collaborated. His "Vaillance," which was written at the request of certain friends, who, after having read his "Jeunesse," demanded of him a briefer and simpler work in a similar spirit, was honored with a subscription by the Minister of Public Instruction, and has proved of great assistance to many teachers in the teaching of morals in the secondary schools. He has been one of the most zealous workers for the transformation of the public school buildings into centers of general culture for their respective districts, and one of the most efficient organizers of the Universités Populaires.

In a word, there are few philanthropic undertakings in Paris in which M. Wagner does not play some part. Like our Robert Woods in Boston and our Jane Addams in Chicago (though relatively less known in his city than they in theirs), he is to be found whenever and wherever the uplifting of the masses or the reconciliation of the masses with the classes is concerned.

There may be, and in France as a matter of fact there are, two opinions about M. Wagner as a publicist. One may well hesitate to pronounce definitely on the value of his relations to the movements of the period. It is possible that his significance as an intellectual and moral force is exaggerated in certain quarters. But it is impossible, I fancy, to exaggerate the benevolent interest in people which constitutes the chief charm of his private character, which is the salient quality of his less ambitious books, such as "Le Long du Chemin," "L'Ame des Choses," and "Auprès du Foyer," and which goes far to atone for the numerous shortcomings of these books as literature.

This interest is limited to no single class or condition. M. Wagner is a regular visitor in many well-to-do families who delight in his visits because he brings with him "a sort of freshness of soul which recalls the air of the heights," and which makes them say to him, "We depend on you to wind up our clocks." But his sympathies go out most frequently and most spontaneously to the feeble and the lowly in both country and town.

He lets no occasion slip to express his affectionate veneration for the aged. He addresses all aged men as "*grand-père*," and all aged women as "*grande-mère*," and he lavishes upon them all sorts of filial attentions. When he has occasion to follow the bier of a poor person to the cemetery—a matter of three or four hours for him in Paris—he invariably makes the trip on foot, and changes his position repeatedly in order to talk with all the persons in the cortège.

He has a fine old-fashioned appreciation of the special mission of women—which will shock our "new women," it is to be feared—and practices a touching deference towards them, particularly towards those whom he knows to be overburdened. "It is one of my greatest pleasures," he says, in a recent letter in which he answers freely a number of questions regarding his tastes and habits, "to sit for an hour or so with certain poor, hard-worked women whom I know particularly, and whom I esteem for their courage and their simple fidelity to modest duties. I talk while my hostess mends, or tends her children. When I meet a woman who is about to become a mother, especially if she has a child or a heavy bundle in her arms, I am always tempted to render her signal honor. And I say very often, '*Ave Maria*,' by way of tribute to the women I see at their toil around me."

"I have a special cult," he adds, "for the little children who toddle in walking. A few days ago, in the cemetery of St. Jean du Doigt, Brittany, close by the ancient church, I met a two-year-old child with dark, curling hair and great, deep, brown eyes. I gazed long at him before I passed on, profoundly moved by this grace and this beauty, in which I perceived the work of God. The meeting of such a child is like the rising of a star for me."

"M. Wagner," says a man who knows him very intimately, "has become the confidant of a large number of persons, Protestant and non-Protestant, French and foreign, because his hospitable

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heart offers a sure retreat for their perplexities and pains. And if this man has known in his life periods of great fatigue and extreme lassitude, it should be attributed not only to the great number of personal crises he has had to traverse since his childhood, and the extraordinary amount of work he has turned off, but to the sympathy which makes him share the suffering of all the people who have become his friends and his heart-brothers."

Through the years of his residence in Paris M. Wagner has kept the temperament as he has kept the vigorous physique of a country-bred boy. His love of nature is second only to his love of people—if, indeed, it is really second to anything in the world—and, like that, it is revealed most fully in his less ambitious writings. In a charming account of his first sojourn in Paris, which he prepared especially for a Swiss publication, and which has been printed, so far as I am aware, nowhere else, M. Wagner portrays effectively the free, open-air existence he had left behind him and his homesick yearning therefor:

"In October, 1866, just before I was fifteen, it was decided between my mother, a pastor's widow, and her adviser, Pastor Loewenguth, that I should go to Paris to continue my classical studies.

"I set out with a sort of enthusiasm. An uncle accompanied me as far as the railroad at Sarrebourg, about twenty miles. My directions for the journey were simply these: 'To-morrow morning, when you hear "Paris" called out, leave the cars.'

"Ah, youth, eager for change, how ephemeral my joy was to be!

"In spite of the premature death of my father, I had been a happy child. Brought up in a village, among peasants who were honest, intelligent, hard-working, and full of natural piety; enamored of the fields, of the woods, of the springs, of the transparent brooks, and of the wild strawberries, independent, without the shadow of a constraint upon my young life, and, except for a few hours of study, always in the open air and on the country ways, I little suspected what awaited me.

"Oh! I went to an excellent place. A *pension* could not well be more paternal than the Pension Kuhn, where I was expected with other pupils. But Paris, great Paris; first, the thick ramparts, then walls, walls, walls, houses of a prodigious height, and strips only of sky visible from the streets below! What an abode for the rustic I was, what a cage for a free bird of the Lorraine forest! . . . When I was in the midst of this smoke, this noise, this hubbub of vehicles, this mob of pedestrians, this orgy of buildings, my heart stopped beating. It seemed to me that it was always night, and that all these unknown persons who were hurrying I knew not where, on foot, in carriages, in omnibuses, without a break in the flood, must be so many raving lunatics.

"Melancholy début, rude test for an untried intelligence and an active temperament!

"My life was going to consist, then, of sitting in rooms!

"I picked myself up as after a fall from a height.

"Nothing in my letters home betrayed the fact that I was suffering the anguish of the prisoner and the homesickness of the exile. No one of my dozen young companions at the pension, of whom I was by far the most uncouth, noticed it. But at night, once my comrades were asleep, I abandoned myself to my pain. That dear little corner of the world which I had forsaken so joyously a few days before emerged, vision-like, away off yonder on the horizon of the happy days that were no more. I wept for it as for a lost paradise."

The letter of M. Wagner from which I have already quoted largely contains an engaging confession of his love of nature, with special reference to his passion for flowers:

"Last spring," he says, "after an overlong indisposition, my physicians sent me into the Midi. I breathed there the pure air and the perfume of the pines. One day, having found an orchid in the course of my rambles, I remained spellbound before it a long time; for this orchid was so delicate in workmanship and so marvelous in coloration that I could not detach my eyes from it.

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What makes for me especially the charm of creation is that which I see therein, on every side, as I have explained in a page of 'l'Ami, l'Éternel dans l'Éphémère' ['The Eternal in the Ephemeral']. I adore the silence of the country because it enables me to listen to the voice of nature and the voice of conscience."

"The Eternal in the Ephemeral" is M. Wagner's constant preoccupation in his manifold approaches to persons and things, and the proclamation of its discovery is his most exquisite joy.

Do This in Remembrance of Me

By Charles Wagner

Translated by Grace King from "Le Libéral Évangélique"

WHEN Christ, at the supreme reunion, wished to put a little light into the hearts of his disciples, he taught them an act, and said to them, "Do this in remembrance of Me." He knew well that when he was departed this act and the words that accompanied it would be a sure means of evoking his figure in their sad meetings. And the prevision was realized. Each time, in their immense sorrow, that they assembled to break bread in memory of him, they felt him to be in their midst.

I think that all wounded hearts should follow such an example. Have you lost a loved one? Do something in memory of her—of him. And, above all, love one another in memory of her—of him. It is not to mechanical gestures that Jesus invites his own. He well knew that to break the daily bread from day to day would be for them a perpetual renewing of the union of which he was the center. In communicating in memory of him they would love one another in him, and love him ever more. He would be revealed in their circle and reawakened in their souls. His words would sing on their lips, and his image brighten their memories.

Those dear ones you weep are leading you gently towards one another and are saying to you: In memory of me, love ye one another. Life divides us. Shadows fall across the hearth. After the departure of the loved ones difficulties arise of which they knew not. Let yourself be led into pardon by those who have entered into peace. Hear them say to you: In memory of me, forgive.

Those who sleep have left a work. Their hands are folded, the work is unfinished. Would you feel indeed near them, feel yourself in accord with them? Do in remembrance of them what you know they loved to do. All day long, when their absence weighs upon you, if you would have their image walk invisible at your side, render to them the homage of actions at which their souls may smile, and say: It is for thee that I do it. The true worship of God is a worship in spirit and in truth, full of the gift of one's self. The true worship of memory is a living, acting worship, in which the heart full of love eases itself in doing works of pure good will.

When the living do that which used to displease the dead; when children walk in paths where the benediction of dead parents cannot follow them; when about the empty places at the fireside a life of forgetfulness is installed, a life disdainful of those things which the absent one loved, then are the dead twice dead. There are houses in which all that one sees recalls the thick weeds which in the cemetery invade forgotten tombs. There, we feel what it is to be really dead, buried, forgotten. It is rare that one loves the other in such dwellings. In them there breathes a selfish spirit, and everything in them is consecrated, is sacrificed to the satisfactions of the present moment. There, above all, each lives for self. All that pertains to the category of the ideal, of the soul, is there considered as smoke. It is a sad world, cold and brutal.

Let us not live this short, ungrateful life, where the dead are cast behind as so many non-values. Let us keep the

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solidarity of those who are gone with those who remain. Let us do works of disinterested goodness, in memory of the dear ones who have taken their flight. Life will gain thereby in perfume, warmth, and mutual gentleness. It will, moreover, gain in depth, brightness, and power. And the habit of living with those who have crossed the passage of death will make it more familiar to us. They have passed that way, they have prepared the way for us. Their loved faces smile to us from the other shore.

The Construction of the Canal

By Annabel Lee

The data for the following article were obtained from the published and unpublished reports of the Isthmian Canal Commission, and the article itself has been read and approved as a correct presentation of the Commission's plans by the Secretary of the Commission, Mr. D. I. Murphy.—THE EDITORS.

FROM nearly every standpoint, the design and construction of the Panama Canal is the most difficult engineering project and the most important work ever begun by nation or individual. Nothing, perhaps, in the whole domain of international politics has been the occasion of more ludicrous mistakes than the Isthmian highway. And no problem of the age presents a subject that offers greater varieties of interest and obstacles than that just solved by the Isthmian Commission in adopting the plan of a canal with locks. This organization has approached the question in a somewhat different way from that which Count de Lesseps directed; and it now remains for American prowess to triumph in the perplexing enterprise.

From the beginning, our Commission has based the undertaking upon a plan as if it were like any other industrial affair, and after an investigation of the methods employed in the building of the world's deep-water channels, a close observation of facts, and an invaluable object-lesson—in the French disaster—it has been decided to adopt the plan of canal with locks. In accordance with these conclusions the Commission's plan is to save the cost and excavation of nearly thirteen miles of the canal by making an artificial lake, with a maximum elevation of ninety feet above mean tide, with an area of forty-three square miles. This lake will be known as Lake Bohio, and is formed by a dam across the Chagres River. While the plan approved by the Commission is not unlike the second plan of the French engineers, it is more simple, requires less excavation, less time, and presents a great difference in the reduction of cost.

Such a plan as the sea-level canal would be physically practicable if no other solution were to be turned to account; but it would require twenty years for completion at the least computation, and the expense of carrying out this theory, including tide-lock, is estimated at $240,000,000.

Moreover, the sea-level canal would have to be made large enough to take the maximum floods and would comprise a cross section from Obispo to the Atlantic, with an area of 15,000 square feet below the water line, giving a bottom width of 400 feet and requiring 266,228,000 cubic yards of excavation.

Navigation in the sea-level canal would be exceptionally easy, and while the superiority of such a canal on a level over any other is not to be disputed, the advantages of the lock system are preferred when time and cost are considered.

With the rejection of the sea-level proposition came the difficult problem of providing water at the summit level to be used in the operation of the locks, and as this supply is of vital necessity to the scheme, the Commission has devoted much of its time to a careful analysis of the dam's foundation, and

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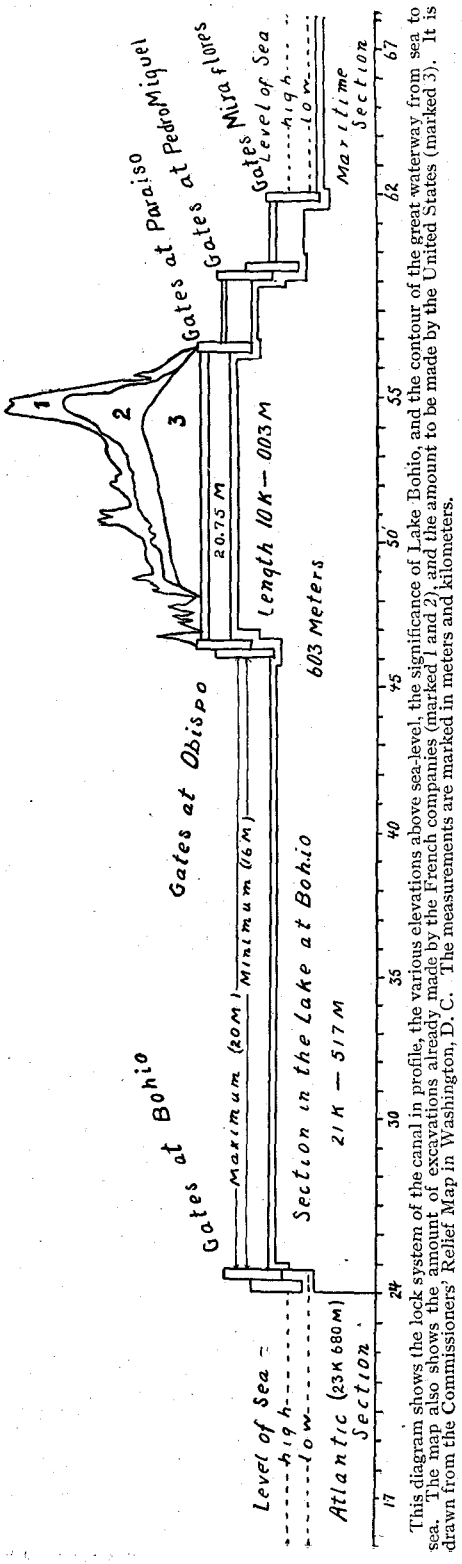

This diagram shows the lock system of the canal in profile, the various elevations above sea-level, the significance of Lake Bohio, and the contour of the great waterway from sea to sea. The map also shows the amount of excavations already made by the French companies (marked 1 and 2), and the amount to be made by the United States (marked 3). It is drawn from the Commissioners' Relief Map in Washington, D. C. The measurements are marked in meters and kilometers.

has studied the various types of structures which might be made of service.

The research undertaken by this body consisted mainly in the observations and the results obtained by the French companies on the Isthmus, a verification of their methods by field surveys, and an extension of information regarding the rainfall in the Chagres basin.

Nor was this all. In order to form an estimate of the cost of operating and maintaining the Isthmian Canal, the Commission studied carefully the dredging work of the Suez Canal through its channel of drifting sand, and found the annual cost of maintenance to be $1,300,000, or about $13,000 per mile. An investigation was also made of the Kiel, Manchester, and St. Mary's Falls canals, with their locks and large proportion of mechanical structures, and, as a result, a project has been developed for the organization of the force and plant required for maintaining the prism and harbors, operating the canal, and providing for sanitary and police control. The estimates of the annual cost are $2,000,000. In the first place, questions of safety and economy are of the gravest importance from the beginning of a purpose; and while much of the data appears to be reliable, the Commission in its assumptions has made allowances to err on the safe side if at all, and thus qualify against failures.

Where so much depends upon the natural soil or rock upon which the foundations must rest, it is not to be wondered at that this feature has been given the most searching investigation.

But the most important proposition and the initial plan of the Commission is to provide a water supply for use in the dry season, and ample for a traffic of 10,000,000 tons per annum, by damming the Chagres River and converting Lake Bohio into a great artificial lake, extending through the Culebra cut. One of the greatest natural barriers to the canal construction lies in the control of the Chagres, but without this river—which is the only feeder to the summit level—a canal with locks would be impossible.

The total area of the Chagres drainage basin is 1,400 square miles, and for

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more than half its length the projected line of canal extends through the Chagres valley.

The Chagres flows through a mountainous country, is about 145 miles long, and its discharge at Bohio varies from a minimum of about 350 cubic feet to a maximum of 36,000 cubic feet per second. The average annual rainfall is about 130 inches. The slopes are so precipitous and rock is so near the surface that a violent rainfall converts the banks into cascades. In 1879 the flood reached a height of 39.3 feet above low-water at Bohio. The magnitude of the flood discharge is an important feature in its relation to the works necessary to control the surplus waters, and, to reduce the current to an unobjectionable velocity, a system of sluices has been designed for the flood control.

It is anticipated that there will be a deficiency of water during the dry season, and, for use during these months, the surplus waters of other months must be stored. For this purpose a reservoir will be constructed at Alhajuela which will contain four times that now provided for daily use, and this will also furnish motive power for operating the locks and lighting the channel from Colon to Panama. After devoting much time to the location of the Bohio dam, the Commission, for reasons of economy, adopted the plan of constructing an earth embankment with a heavy masonry core carried down to bed rock throughout the length of the structure. The pneumatic process will be used where the bed is lower than 30 feet below sea-level, and coffer-dams will be substituted when the foundation is above that elevation. The width of the dam at the top is 20 feet and its total length 2,546 feet.

The cost of the Bohio dam is estimated at $6,369,640. About three miles southwest of the dam is the site of the Gigante spillway. This structure rests on a rock foundation above tide-level for the whole length of the spillway, and will consist of a concrete dam, by which the discharge from the lake can be kept away from the accessory works of the canal. The height of the spillway is to be about 85 feet above mean tide, and will be a fixed weir 2,000 feet long. It will cost, including the channel ways above and below it, $1,209,419. From the spillway the water will flow across country about a mile to the Peña Blanca swamp, and will have a fall of 62.7 feet in this distance. From here it will be discharged through an artificial channel into the Agua Clara swamp, nearly a mile from the canal. This channel will have a bottom width of 500 feet, a depth of 20 feet, and a length of 5,676 feet. Its cost is estimated at $2,448,076.

At Gatun it is necessary to divert the Chagres by an artificial channel, and a part of this will be an enlargement of that channel cut by the old canal company. It will have a bottom width of 650 feet, a length of 6,955 feet, and a depth of 25 feet. Its cost is estimated at $1,929,982.

The canal will be protected from overflow in the low regions by levees, their total length amounting to about five miles.

At Gatun the old canal company constructed a diversion channel which can be utilized by the Commission, and the cost of putting this canal into service is $100,000.

It is necessary to rebuild the Panama Railroad for fifteen and a half miles—from Bohio to the Obispo gates. The railroad will be laid for six miles on the bench formed by the retaining wall on the east side of the Culebra cut; added to this will be a mile of light work, and the main track will have to be raised for two miles, making a total cost of $1,267,500.

The canal when completed will be 49.09 miles in length, and will begin from 36 feet deep in the Atlantic and extend to 36 feet deep in the Pacific Ocean. In its beginning at Limon Bay it has a channel 500 feet wide at bottom, and curves to the left until it reaches a point inside the mole of the old company. For about a mile this wide channel forms a harbor.

Near the apex of the second curve, in order to furnish a turning basin, the bottom width is increased to 800 feet for a length of 800 feet; but the inner end of the harbor has a bottom width of 150 feet, with side slopes of 1 on 3

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through the swamp. The length of this level to the Bohio lock is 14.42 miles, and will cost $11,099,839, including $151,347 for levees and $299,000 for the lower approach to the lock, 1,200 feet long. There is a double flight of locks at Bohio, having a normal lift of 85 feet.

With a view to provide for a future increase in the beam of ships, the width of the locks is fixed at 84 feet between the side walls, and the length is 740 feet in the clear. The bottom width of the prism will be 150 feet, and when these channels are excavated in open water the width is increased. In Panama Bay it increases to 200 feet. Twin locks are provided in every case, and guard gates are placed at both ends of every lock that no delay may interfere with the traffic during repairs.

All of the locks will rest on rock foundations and will have concrete walls throughout except the quoins, the tops of the miter-sill walls, and the exposed inlets and outlets of the culverts. The lock gates are designed of steel.

For the first seven miles after the canal enters the artificial Lake Bohio there is sufficient room for navigation and anchorage, and the length of the canal through this broad body of water is 12.68 miles from the locks to the point where the channel leaves the Chagres, and .93 of a mile farther it enters the cut through the divide, and will cost $2,952,154.

The summit cut will have guard gates 100 feet wide, so that the level of the lake would not be affected if the summit cut is emptied. These gates will be near Obispo, and the cost is estimated at $295,434, including masonry and excavation. The world has heard more of the Culebra Cut than any other section of the work on the Isthmian Canal, for it is at this section that the French concentrated their energies. The summit cut is 7.91 miles long from the Obispo gates to the Pedro Miguel locks. The highest point is about five miles from the Obispo gates, where the bottom of the canal is 286 feet below the natural surface of the ground. The entire cut will be lined with masonry walls, extending to two feet above high water, which will have vertical faces and broad benches 30 feet wide on each side to arrest slides. The estimated amount of excavation in this section is 43,237,200 cubic yards, and will cost $44,414,460 for 7.91 miles between the Obispo gates and Pedro Miguel locks. It is thought that it will require eight years for this excavation, at an approximate cost of 80 cents per cubic yard.

The Pedro Miguel locks will have an excellent rock foundation, and will cost, including a dam, $9,081,321. There is a section 1.33 miles long from these locks to the Miraflores locks, the last of the series; this will cost $1,192,286.

The Miraflores lock and spillway will cost $5,781,401. From here the canal extends through a low country for 4.12 miles to a point in Panama Bay called La Boca, the location of the Panama Railroad wharf.

A channel 200 feet wide will be cut from this point 4.41 miles to the 6-fathom line in the Bay of Panama, and the total cost will be $12,427,971. This harbor is a roadstead and will not require a separate cost of maintenance.

The total amount of excavation is 94,863,703 cubic yards, exclusive of the Bohio dam and the Gigante spillway.

The new company has excavated about 5,000,000 cubic yards, which, added to the 72,000,000 cubic yards of the old company, make a total of 77,000,000 cubic yards. On account of the various changes of plan, much of this is of no value, but the amount of excavation which can be utilized in the Chagres diversion is 210,873 cubic yards, and in the Gatun diversion is 2,685,494 cubic yards. The amount of excavation which will be of value for the main canal line is 36,689,965 cubic yards, making a total of 39,586,332 cubic yards. Summing up the figures given, the total estimated cost of completing the Isthmian Canal aggregates $144,233,358, which includes a special estimate of about $24,000,000 for engineering, police, sanitation, and general contingencies.

The completion of the Culebra Cut will indicate the time of completing the canal. It must be remembered that all these surveys are but tentative, and but approximate amounts of work and cost have so far been obtained.

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Until the time of transfer, the French companies employed the same methods in their constructive work that were used in the excavation of the Suez Canal a generation ago. But the world has moved since then, and modern application of tools specially adapted to the work and the improved methods of construction will do wonders in reducing not only cost, but time of completion.

While the engineering problems are herculean, the sanitary and industrial features of this work are equally important.

Recognizing the significance of the health problem, the Government's sanitary work has been placed in charge of Colonel William C. Gorgas, Medical Corps, U.S.A., who so successfully stamped out the yellow fever scourge in Havana.

Quarantine establishments will be maintained in Colon and Panama, where ships can be examined, and the hospital system will include all the health departments provided by modern times. Mosquito brigades will be inaugurated to destroy the breeding-places of mosquitoes, for the supervision of street-cleaning, and for practical sanitation.

With an estimated increase of population to 50,000 within the next few years, the medical corps can provide for a hospital population of 5,000.

Engineers are now at work on the canal strip studying the problem of water supply, which will probably be piped from the head waters of the Chagres. A number of nurses have already been sent to the Isthmus, and these American nurses will work in conjunction with the Sisters of Mercy who have been established at Panama for a number of years.

Aside from the construction, engineering, and sanitary problems, the industrial question assumes a place of no mean importance. The labor on the Isthmus is found unavailable, and it has been suggested that, as it is not a white man's work, the American negroes be given the preference. The construction calls for many classes of work, employing specialists in each; these, of course, will be white men, but the Southern negro, it is believed, could be found useful for this labor. From ten to twenty thousand laborers can be furnished from Alabama, and they are men who have been accustomed to this class of work, at $1.10 to $1.75 per day. It is not thought that more than 15,000 men will be employed at any one time on the Isthmus, as much of the work will be concentrated on the Cut, and will of necessity be accomplished by machines operated by electricity and steam, and it is expected that about 150,000 cubic yards per day will be excavated.

The unit prices fixed by the Commission, in making their computations of cost, are as follows:

Removal of hard rock, per cubic yard	$1.15
Removal of soft rock, per cubic yard	.80
Removal of earth not handled by dredge, per cubic yard	.45
Removal of dredgeable material, per cubic yard	.20
Removal of rock, under water, per cubic yard	4.75
Embankments and back filling, per cubic yard	.60
Rock in jetty construction, per cubic yard	2.50
Stone pitching, including necessary backing, per square yard	2.00
Cleaning and grubbing in swamp sections, per acre	100.00
Concrete, in place, per cubic yard	8.00
Finished granite, per cubic yard	60.00
Brick in culvert lining, per cubic yard	15.00
All metals in locks, exclusive of machinery and culvert linings, per pound	.075
All metal in sluices, per pound	.075
Cast iron in culvert lining, per pound	.04
Allowance for each lock chamber for operating machinery	50,000.00
Additional allowance for each group of locks for power plant	100,000.00
Price of timber in locks, per M. B. M.	100.00
Sheet piling in spillways, per M. B. M.	75.00
Bearing piles in spillways, per linear foot	.50
Average price of pneumatic work for the Bohio dam below elevation —30, per cubic yard	29.50
Single track railroad, with switches, stations, and rolling stock, per mile of main line	75,000.00

The cost and equipment will be large, but it will be distributed over a very large work. It is estimated that it will require a medium-sized ship 11 hours

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and 14 minutes to pass through the canal, and that a toll of $1 a vessel per ton register would be sufficient to pay the expenses of operation and yield a return on the capital invested. Otherwise a toll of 40 to 50 cents would pay expenses.

The Commission's office in Washington, D. C., is besieged daily by letters of inquiry concerning employment on the world's greatest water highway, and these are answered promptly by Mr. D. I. Murphy, Secretary of the Commission, and a corps of assistants.

There are also other letters received at this bureau, letters suggesting mysterious plans for building the canal, which the writers will divulge if the Commission will pay their expenses to Washington for that purpose.

Letters also come from industrial companies, and not the least interesting of these is one from a Chinese company offering to furnish from ten to sixty thousand Chinese coolies at 60 cents per day per head. This company binds itself to assume all risks, sanitation and sustenance, will bring the Chinese over in specially chartered ships, all clothing and food to be shipped from China, and if the coolie succumbs to a tropical disease his body will be taken back to China for interment.

The idea of piercing the Isthmus was often discussed during the sixteenth century, but instead of solving the problem, that era has bequeathed it to the new century, and from now on the world will have a chance to compare the methods of American and European engineers.

Jesus and the Prophetic Hope

By Thomas C. Hall

Professor of Christian Ethics in Union Theological Seminary, New York

TO fully understand Jesus we must enter historically into the religious hope of the Old Testament. So weak was primitive Christianity, and so fully did it expect the early coming of the Messiah again in power, that its early documents scarcely dare to speak of a world conquest, or to address a message to any but chosen individuals from all nations. Even Paul saw only a church gathered from all nations. The temporal dominions belonged to this age, and were, as he felt, to pass away with the age to which they belonged. Indeed, the New Testament taken alone misrepresents to many minds the real purpose of Jesus, and to understand this fully we must go back to the Old Testament, in which Jesus found his own spiritual nourishment. In God's providence historical study has made of late that Old Testament live again, and with new enthusiasm we may address ourselves to the grateful task of understanding Jesus in the fresh light falling from its pages.

There is a sharp contrast in the opening Gospel between John the Baptist and Jesus. John came as an ascetic. He came proclaiming very necessary repentance and fasting. Jesus came with a message of joy and gladness. He poured out upon men the spirit of rejoicing. Men called him a wine-bibber and a friend to loose company, so natural were his joy and life. There was no asceticism in the teaching of Jesus. He called men to the joy of a Messianic life. For nothing is more startling to conventional thought than to find Jesus calling Judaism to do what he himself had at last to accomplish alone. Jesus had fed upon the prophetic dreams of the Old Testament. He saw his nation called to be a light set upon a hill. His joyful cry was to his people to follow him into an abundant entrance into the new life. The thought of the post-exilic prophets was of a holy community in which God could really manifest himself to all the world. That community must be holy; that is to say, it must be ethically clean and ritually correct. Moreover, it must be holy as a community. All must be clean, all must be ready to appear before God. The joy that filled the heart of Jesus was that the time had come. The Kingdom or

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reign of God could now begin. He had a clear vision of his Father's redeeming purpose, and his nation had only to fling itself upon that purpose, and the weary years of painful preparation would end in the glorious revelation of the Father in his nation to his world.

We all know the tragic disappointment that awaited the gentle heart of Jesus. Again and again we feel the gathering gloom that settled upon his hope. The final awakening seems to have taken place at Cæsarea Philippi. The nation, Jesus now felt, had most definitely refused to enter upon the Messianic life; it finally declined to become at all costs the medium of God's completest revelation of himself. From this time on Jesus turned to a small band of select persons to train them to take up the Messianic mission when he himself should be compelled to lay it down. Jesus never preached definitely to all nations. His hope was that the message might be transmitted by a redeemed nation. As this hope failed he fixed upon a few. Yet we feel keenly the strain upon the faith of Jesus when he was called to leave his work to such hands. It was no personal disappointment that broke his heart. It was no physical pain nor wounded pride that formed the bitterness of his cross. That bitterness was the seeming wreck of his most cherished hope, the fearful and justified doubt in leaving his work to the unskillful hands of the half-trained twelve.

Nor was the apocalyptic vision of a coming doom and judgment day comfort to the loving spirit of the Master. How could that be? He saw by the analogy of history his beloved city ravaged by hostile armies, and a prey to the fierceness of invading foes. He never lost confidence in God, but his confidence in man had been rudely shaken. There is an awful pathos in the lonely bewilderment of the suffering Jesus. He, like the exiled Holy Community, had to be made perfect through suffering. He had to taste for every man the death of every single hope, the seeming defeat of every single plan. When the nation might have been the suffering but triumphant Messianic servant, Jesus had to go alone into the valley black as death. His vision failed him, but never his faith. In his agony God might seem to have forsaken him, but nevertheless into that same Father's hands he commends his spirit.

Thus, Jesus became the incarnation of God's redeeming purpose. Does any one ask what is our God, we joyfully proclaim him the God and Father of our Lord Jesus Christ. Yet Jesus distinctly foresaw greater works than those he did, and foretold a larger revelation of the Father. It was in fact good that he should go away, that that larger revelation might come. Again we must take up the Old Testament to find out what Jesus meant. What is the source of the really hurtful infidelity of to-day? Why is it hard to persuade men to trust the God and Father of our Lord Jesus Christ? Because God's world reveals injustice, greed, avarice, lust, foul political corruption, gross intemperance, savage hates, base passions, and hideous social shames. The heavens declare the glory of God, but only persons can show his love and his righteousness. The earth can reveal God's handiwork, but only organized human life can fully illustrate his essential righteousness. The world still waits for a Holy Community, the whole creation still groans and travails in pain together waiting for the revealing of God as loving Purpose in the whole of human life.

The vision of post-exilic prophecy was of a community in which God could and would dwell. The bells on the horses and the pots and pans of every household were to be as sacrificial as the vessels of the central temple. Primitive Christianity caught up the idea of a holy priesthood of believers. We have to go on to the conception of a Messianic nation in which God can dwell, so that no man will ask his brother where is God. All will see him in life, as Philip was taught to see him in Jesus Christ. There will be no need for elaborate cosmological, ontological, theological arguments for God, which seldom convince any one who really disbelieves. No one will have any room to doubt. God is love, and love will be the foundation of the new communal life. God is

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righteousness, and righteousness will be the life of the new association of men. God is joy and peace, and these things will be the atmosphere of God's new creation. We may get light upon God's metaphysical essence, or we may not, but all we need to know for life's purpose God will reveal to us in this newness of life. In the bride of Jesus Christ God will dwell, and we will see with our own eyes the beauty of his holiness.

Somewhere this Messianic community will begin. This is our Christian faith, at least it was the faith of Jesus. And when it once begins we will hardly need to send missionaries to distant lands. The visions of the third Isaiah (Isaiah lx.–lxvi.) will be fulfilled. As now the nations send commissions to see how we build our gunboats and make our whisky, then they will send to see how we live in love, and who is our God who is thus revealed in our life.

In the wild, mad rush of commercial competition men say, with a sneer, that such a Christianity would be national disaster. Men would come and take away our place as a nation. That threat never frightened Jesus. He knew that the nation that would die unto sin would be raised again, and that the glories of a real resurrection life would never again pass away. Jesus died for his faith, and is waiting for a Holy Community that will drink of the cup he drank of and be baptized with the baptism wherewith he was baptized. And Jesus knows to-day that his Reign of the Father can never be founded upon the treacherous quicksands of cruel commercial competitions. He saw the house must be built upon a rock. Other foundation can no man lay than that which has been laid in the faith of Jesus.

God is standing over against our American life, and asking very solemnly where our real faith is. The mission of the organized Church is to live and die for the faith Jesus has taught us. The revelation of God the Father of our Lord Jesus was in the activities of Jesus. It is not simply what the Church teaches, but what the Church is, that is important. God simply cannot reveal himself as love, righteousness, ideal justice, mercy, and peace in a jangling, warring, selfish, unlovely human life. He has revealed himself as far as it is possible in a single human life. Jesus stands out in the growing religious experience of the world with ever distinct uniqueness and power. The dream of a Messianic Church must be a Messianic nation. Our patriotism dare not be content with less than making the National life the organ through which God will proclaim himself to all the world.

The old prophetic hope gathered about a city and a central place of worship. The Jewish heart ever turned with eager longing to the city of Jerusalem as the place where God was to be most distinctly manifested. Alas for the modern city! How little of the divine it really reflects! Yet here is where we may look for the central revelation in the coming order of God's heart and life. Greed and parasitic wealth, selfish private interests and clashing ignorances make our modern American cities fearful revelations of man's hasty shrewdness and real shortsightedness. Jesus beholds the city and weeps over it. Our task is the reconstruction of the city into the image of God. God's beauty and peace, God's gentle care for the weakest of his creatures, must be fully revealed in the fulfillment of the purpose of Jesus in some great and really Christian city.

One marked difference, however, separates the modern Christian hope from even the noblest of the post-exilic aspirations. The God the Holy Community was to reveal was, indeed, loving, more particularly toward Judaism, but he was predominantly a God of power. In his wrath and conquest by triumphant force men should be compelled to render him reverence. The God Jesus calls us to reveal is, indeed, power. At the same time Jesus has revealed the fact that his essential purpose is not the display of power, but of love. The new order will reveal, not the righteous and fearless justice of an omnipotent Ruler, but the loving, tender equity of a Father. According to Jesus, God was the chief servant of his own universe, sending rain upon the just and the unjust, marking the sparrow's fall, and sending his sons into the world not to be ministered unto but to minister. In Jesus Christ

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we know that God is always giving his life a ransom for the crowd—the *polloi*. The God we actually are revealing to nations less strong than we and less wary is a God of force and energy, but hugely selfish, and basing all values in the last analysis upon possession and power and influence. That is even the God we often proclaim in our theological systems. And even where we in speech deny such to be the God and Father of our Lord Jesus Christ, in our life—the great communal life at which a gaping world sometimes wonders—the revelation of God is very far from the portraiture in Jesus.

In the Old Testament we see the communal revelation of the old tribal war god melting into the image of a just and loving Creator and Preserver in Deuteronomy. We see again the communal life revealing God as ethical standards uncompromising in their character and exacting in their demands. The Jewish religious life should have gone on farther, and revealed that loving Providence as personal, helpful Father. It is left to us, looking unto Jesus the author and perfecter or completer of our faith, to go on to reveal in our national or associated life God as Jesus knew him, and as we know him in Jesus Christ. Then all shall know him, from the least even unto the greatest.

One of the sad signs of to-day is that many men looking out on life as it is do not want immortality. Mere endlessness of existing conflicts is too unattractive, and we are revealing as sons of God nothing to stir men to trust God for something better. The so-called Christian hope of heaven has been built up too much upon despairs of the existing world and selfish dreams of material attainment really to hold men who have seen, however dimly, the falseness of existing life and the real character of material pleasures. We need not wonder that men do not long for endlessness in the existing disorder, and we ought not to be surprised that they have no faith in anything better, while we ourselves neither really believe in it here on earth, nor are willing to stake our all on its actual reality anywhere. Men have sometimes seen enough of God in Christ Jesus to reject our whole scheme of living; we have not so lived and walked that they come to us to discover how this vision of holiness and divine peace may be prolonged. This is life eternal, to know God, and our final knowledge of God must be in a communal incarnation of him.

The Critical Period of Life[1]

THE author of this really great work has long been a profound student of his subject, and a teacher of teachers. To him the adolescent stage of life seems most worthy of reverence and most in need of a service which our intelligence is not yet adequate to render. Home, school, and church still fail to recognize duly its nature, needs, and perils. To promote a more intelligent and effective recognition of these is the aim with which the various aspects of a vast and complex theme are here presented in great fullness of detail. It would be difficult to discover anything to his purpose within the present range of knowledge that Dr. Hall has failed to take account of. An admirable industry and thoroughness of research are demonstrated by the immense mass of material that has been made tributary to his work. Whether the use made of it is disputable or not, his argument is massive in strength, and its assaults on current ideas and practices are incisive in many directions. From his position, basing psychology on biology, he sees much that sound pedagogy must condemn.

For instance, modern modes of life threaten a degeneration that nothing can avert but a widespread revival in the training of the motor-nerve system. Much good as modern gymnastics has done, it needs a radical revision and coordination of various cults and theories.

[1] *Adolescence: its Psychology and its Relations to Physiology, Anthropology, Sociology, Sex, Crime, Religion, and Education.* By G. Stanley Hall, Ph.D., LL.D., President of Clark University and Professor of Psychology and Pedagogy. Two volumes, 8vo, pages xx.-589, 784. D. Appleton & Co., New York.

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In art, current educational theory and practice are quite too hard on gifted youth. All schools are more or less at fault. There is too much "soft pedagogy." In the teaching of science the logical order is allowed to make havoc with the true genetic order. "Even language and literature are rapidly ceasing to be humanistic." Defects in secondary and higher education are freely criticised, and also the disastrous pedagogy that makes the Bible, our great textbook of psychology, "a means for perverting children into precocious, strident skeptics." In short, the pedagogy of science, art, literature, and religion is declared to need reconstruction. That this is coming Dr. Hall optimistically believes. A new educational gospel is revealed, and about to be proclaimed, which will revolutionize every department of instruction.

Of this mass of criticism one who is not a specialist can only say, with old Palæmon,

Non nostrum inter vos tantas componere lites.

One must, however, assent to Dr. Hall's contention that the scientific psychologist must be also a biologist; that the story of the soul and its development is the story of life, and its development on the mental as distinct from the physical side. The doctrine of evolution has already familiarized us with the idea of a brute inheritance sufficiently apparent to prompt the poet's warning,

"Rise upward, working out the beast,
And let the ape and tiger die."

Dr. Hall amplifies this doctrine of heredity, and gives it further application. He adds to the doctrine that the child's prenatal months recapitulate the physical development of human life from the lowest forms upward, the thesis that the years of infancy, childhood, and adolescence reproduce the psychical development from prehistoric beginnings. "Water and a long apprenticeship to aquatics and arboreal life have left as plain and indelible marks upon the soul as upon the body." To understand the mind thoroughly its archæology must be understood. Psychology must make account of this; must be genetic; and such is the psychology that must be "the teacher's Blackstone," if he would aid the natural unfolding of the mental powers. "The souls of early races are those of children magnified."

At the age of nine "an all-sided mobilization" of mind has been effected. "The child of nine to twelve . . . represents probably an old and relatively perfected stage of race-maturity, . . . a terminable stage of human development at some post-simian point." At dawning adolescence the child's Edenic harmony with nature is broken up; a new world opens to him; he is driven forth, like Adam and Eve, to subdue it if he can; this is the storm and stress period of our life; here must an intelligent and vigilant sympathy stand by with all its succors. The main bulk of these volumes is devoted to explication of the principles and ways prescribed by genetic psychology for such endeavors in an all-round way, physical, mental, moral.

"The chief fact of genetic psychology is conversion, a real and momentous change of unsurpassed scientific and practical importance and interest." It has "an unchanged and constant element beneath all its mutable fashions in different ages, races, and sects, viz., growth from a life of self to a life of service." This view has already been brought forward by such writers as Professors Starbuck and Coe, with acknowledgment of their indebtedness to Dr. Hall. But the doctrine of conversion needs, he affirms, to be saved from its friends, and still more, "to be psychologically restated and vindicated to both religious, scientific, and pedagogic minds that have undervalued or even ignored and scoffed at it." Not only does Dr. Hall regard the Bible, recovered by modern learning to its true use, as specifically adapted in its successive portions to the successive stages of the growing mind, but the story of the Cross as "the best of all the initiatives to maturity. . . . The Gospel story is the most adequate and classic dramatic representation of the truest formulæ of the most critical revolution of life."

These volumes are a thesaurus of observations, whose diversity at once attracts readers and baffles reviewers.

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While some classes of readers will fasten on one topic more than another, such chapters as those on "Diseases of Body and Mind," "Juvenile Faults, Immoralities, and Crimes," "Sexual Development," "Social Instincts and Institutions," will draw the attention of all.

Dr. Hall's definition of the soul as simply *life*, life collective as well as individual, cuts across traditional notions, but is thoroughly tenable. It recalls Pascal's remark that all human generations must be thought of as one man, always living, always learning. Bible readers have already found out in the Revised Version that *life* is the true equivalent of the Greek word *psyche*, formerly translated "soul." "The real ego" is described as "a spark struck off from the central source of being. Its essence is its processes of becoming. It is not a fixed, abiding thing. . . . Collective soul is a sensorium of wondrous subtlety, that reflects in its multipersonal facets most, perhaps all, that has been in the world." This is sufficiently grounded in the established fact of the unity and continuity of all life. A further question, avoided by Dr. Hall, is whether any of these "facets," innumerable individuations of this unitary life, seem capable of perpetuating their personality beyond the dissolution of its visible form. Dr. Hall concerns himself wholly with the past and present of life, and well indicates the importance of our *whence* to the wise conduct of life. But as long as our *whither* is a question of unquenchable human interest, why should he disparage it? It is a natural tendency of minds engrossed with an important truth to be so dazzled by it as to be blind to other truths. Many a naturalist has evinced this infirmity, and Dr. Hall seems also to fall into it. One must grant his contention for the demarcation of psychology as a science of nature from philosophy. Yet all the sciences propose their problems to philosophy, and one cannot approve the slur upon epistemology as on a level with pessimism in fitness for study in old age.

One must heartily agree with Dr. Hall in pointing to the work of Jesus as a pattern and incentive for us to do for other great but decaying religions what he did for Judaism, in his aim to fulfill rather than to destroy. It is gratifying to find him in this point of view approving the aim of the "A.B.C.F.M." as thoroughly sane. It is rather surprising that he finds not merely parallels but supplements in other religions to Christianity; *e.g.*, Mohammedanism teaches temperance, "as Christianity does not." The words quoted will be news to many well-versed Bible students, though they might be true if temperance were unscientifically defined as total abstinence. By the special messages of Buddhism to the middle-aged may be meant specially appreciated messages; but only so can the phrase square with fact. Notwithstanding such qualifications, Dr. Hall holds that our Bible "depicts the development of 'Man-soul' in a way which, if it is rightly understood, leaves the best classics of the best races far behind."

But, after all particulars of dissent, this must be pronounced the most fruitful work on its subject yet produced. Not only is it of high value for the present period of a dangerous and growing artificiality. Broad foundations are laid here that a scientific pedagogy will build on for the education which is effective, through its right understanding of human life, for the right adjustment of life both to its inheritance and to its environment in the world.

Lake Michigan

By Charles Sumner Pike

A blotch of blue, of green and gray,
A splash of sky and sea;
And night and day, 'mid surf and spray,
A sob of agony!

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Books of the Week

This report of current literature is supplemented by fuller reviews of such books as in the judgment of the editors are of special importance to our readers. Any of these books will be sent by the publishers of The Outlook, postpaid, to any address on receipt of the published price, with postage added when the price is marked "net."

American Constitutional System (The): An Introduction to the Study of the American State. By Westel Woodbury Willoughby. (American State Series.) The Century Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 323 pages. $1.25, net.

To determine the location of ultimate sovereignty under our constitutional system, and to explain the manner in which the integrity of the National government and the supremacy of its laws have been secured without destroying independent action on the part of the constituent commonwealths, are the chief objects of Professor Willoughby's inquest, designed to serve as an introduction to a series of volumes in which the organization and operation of our Federal, State, and local governmental agencies will be described in detail. Professor Willoughby at the outset makes it clear that he finds no place for theories rendering secession or nullification permissible. The corner-stone of his expository edifice is thus laid: "If it be admitted that as a matter of fact a single sovereign State has come into being, its conditioning basis must be considered to have been the feeling of national unity that first created it a single political body out of a number of sovereign peoples, and then gave to it an objective organization. The new State cannot, in other words, be held to have derived its sovereignty by grant from the formerly existing sovereignties, nor can such sovereignties be held to continue to exist after the new national sovereignty becomes a fact." From this it follows, "from the strictly juristic standpoint," that in a sovereign State of the Federal Government type the individual Commonwealths "derive their existence from the will of the National State," and therefore have no control over their own political status, so that, *e.g.*, they are excluded from a legal right to secede from the National State or to refuse obedience to its laws. The United States, it is contended, has become such a sovereign State because, even granting a contractual basis and the creation of a Confederacy at the time of the adoption of the Constitution, "it may properly be argued that there soon came into being a national feeling which created a national sovereignty that was objectively realized both by explicit declaration and in fact." How the Constitution explicitly or by implication conferred powers enabling the development of National sovereignty and the maintenance of its authority in the face of many grave difficulties is a subject to which Professor Willoughby thereafter devotes himself, examining carefully and with copious references to authorities a wide range of problems, including the constitutional grounds upon which the Civil War was fought, the constitutional questions involved in reconstruction, the nature and extent of Federal control of State Governments, Federal and State autonomy, the power of the United States to acquire territory, the constitutional status of territories and the political and civil rights of their inhabitants, and Federal and State citizenship. The work is at once informative and stimulating, and should be welcomed by the general reader as by the student of political theory, its usefulness to the latter being greatly enhanced by the abundance of citations from, or references to, original sources.

Babes in Toyland. By Glen MacDonough and Anna Alice Chapin. Illustrated. Fox, Duffield & Co., New York. 7×9½ in. 180 pages. $1.50, net. (Postage, 15c.)

The pictures in color by Ethel F. Betts are truly charming and tasteful. The story follows the plot (if so it may be called) of the popular stage extravaganza, omitting some of the incidents not pleasing for children. The whole is prettily done.

Bryan's Dictionary of Painters and Engravers. New Edition, Revised and Enlarged under the Supervision of George C. Williamson, Litt.D. Vol. IV. N-R. The Macmillan Co., New York. 12×11½ in. 309 pages. $6, net.

We have already spoken of the valuable work of which this volume forms part, and shall hope to speak further of the entire Dictionary when it is completed.

Burns Country (The). By Charles S. Dougal, M.A. Illustrated. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×8½ in. 338 pages. $2.

A pleasingly discursive talk about the haunts and homes of Burns and all the places he made famous. There are many good pictures. The volume is one of a series dealing with Scott, "Ingoldsby," Thackeray, Hardy, and others.

Evangelism. By Rev. G. Campbell Morgan, D.D. The Bookstore, East Northfield, Mass. 5×7¾ in. 99 pages.

Dr. Morgan's addresses to the students of several theological seminaries, East and West, are here published as stenographically reported. He expects the next great religious movement to "have within it the notes of the social and the ethical." But he does not expect it to be ethically an advance beyond former religious awakenings. In this we think he is mistaken. The old evangelism regarded ethical demands as satisfied by conformity to the conventional standards of morality. Hence, multitudes of religious persons make no effort to advance beyond them, but acquiesce in various social wrongs. The new evangelism must inculcate

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that real and thoroughgoing morality which consists in devotion to the moral ideal, both personal and social.

Faith of a Christian (The). By a Disciple. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×8 in. 301 pages. $1.50.

With much of solid merit this work has one serious defect. Its title is a glaring case of misnomer, and goes to confirm in a fundamental error those who regard Christianity as a dogmatic scheme. Christian faith is not "dogma," as the author virtually says in his Preface, but a personal attitude to a person. That is the New Testament account of it. What is here discussed as "faith" is Christian theology. This the author has on the whole fairly presented in the scientific and philosophic idiom of modern thought, evolutionary and idealistic. His shortcomings, whatever they are, are in the incompleteness of theology as he holds it, rather than in his translation of it into the idiom of our time. This incompleteness is due, in general, to an inadequate view of the divine immanence in the world and in man.

Fusser's Book (The). Rules by Anna Archbald, Georgina Jones. Pictures by Florence Wyman. Fox, Duffield & Co., New York. 5½×8½ in. 30 pages. 75c.

Great Frenchman and the Little Genevese (The): Translated from Etienne Dumont's "Souvenir sur Mirabeau." By Lady Seymour. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 6×8¾ in. 275 pages. $2.50, net.

This is the first translation, so far as we know, of a most important contribution to the literature of the French Revolution. Written by a contemporary, an intimate of the chief *dramatis personæ* of the day, it graphically pictures many a salient event in the first period of the Revolution, and in no small measure assists the student in obtaining an insight into the causes that led to the overthrow of the monarchy. It is otherwise of intense interest as an ingenuous piece of self-portraiture on the part of "the little Genevese," as Carlyle satirically and unjustly dubbed Dumont. Lady Seymour prefers to adopt Macaulay's characterization of the man to whom Mirabeau owed so much, and she is right in so doing. No one can read this simple, candid recital of his life in France without being moved to sympathy and admiration for the Genevese exile.

Heroes of Greek Fairy Tales for My Children (The). By Charles Kingsley. Edited by Charles A. McMurry. (Pocket American and English Classics.) The Macmillan Co., New York. 4×6 in. 252 pages. 25c.

History of George Rogers Clark's Conquest of the Illinois and the Wabash Towns, 1778 and 1779. By Consul Wilshire Butterfield. Published under the Auspices of the Ohio State Archæological and Historical Society. Fred. J. Heer, Columbus, Ohio. 5¼×7¾ in. 815 pages.

Not long ago we had occasion to comment on the extent to which modern historical research is subverting statements commonly accepted as statements of fact, and consigning them to the limbo of fiction or tradition. We have now another case in point, and nearer home. The late Mr. Butterfield, in retelling the story of one of the most important chapters in the winning of the West, has shorn it of much of the romance with which it has been invested, and, in view of the voluminous array of original testimony marshaled in his support, there is no reason to doubt that he has succeeded in giving us a narrative more approximately correct than any version we have yet enjoyed. His work covers the origin, development, and completion of George Rogers Clark's campaigns against the British and their Indian allies in 1778 and 1779, and not only gives many of the facts connected there with an entirely new setting, but enters into a critical examination of the various accounts that have come down to us, and particularly of Clark's own "Memoir," which is shown to be even more defective than has hitherto been suspected. It is pleasant to be able to record, however, that while we must bid farewell to many an interesting episode connected with the capture of Kaskaskia and Vincennes, this latest historian in no wise diminishes the value of the part played by Clark and his men in the struggle for freedom. It is evident that Mr. Butterfield spared himself no trouble in arriving at the truth, and his work may well be accepted as authoritative. This being the case, it is to be regretted that its publishers have seen fit to issue it in a form more suggestive of a sensational piece of fiction than a staid and valuable book of reference. We trust that it will yet appear in a garb more befitting its character.

Italy: From the Alps to Naples. Handbook for Travellers. By Karl Baedeker. Illustrated. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 4×6¼ in. 424 pages. $2.40.

Jess & Co. By J. J. Bell. Harper & Bros., New York. 4½×7 in. 297 pages. $1.25.

Mr. Bell's latest Scots are even more enjoyable than those introduced along with "Wee Macgreegor." David Houston (joiner and glazier by trade, gardener by nature) and Jess, his wife—these are the firm of "Jess & Co.," and the reader will do well to have dealings with them as speedily as possible. Mistress Wallace, aunt to one of the partners, and Maister Ogilvy, the grocer, are to be welcomed also as most entertaining acquaintances.

Jesus of Nazareth the Anointed of God. By P. Cook, M.A. The Fleming H. Revell Co., New York. 5¼×8 in. 165 pages. $1.

Josephine. By Ellen Douglas Deland. Illustrated. Harper & Bros., New York. 5×7½ in. 273 pages. $1.25.

Josephine was a sixteen-year-old Western girl who, with her little sister Georgiana, came East after their parents' death to live in the home of an uncle. They find here a varied assortment of strange boy cousins, from whom, being only girls, they do not at first receive a very cordial welcome. Later they are less disparagingly treated, and finally are heartily adopted by the entire family, including the crotchety old housekeeper, Mrs. Sparks, who had been most opposed to them.

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Lay of the Last Minstrel (The). By Sir Walter Scott. Edited by Ralph Hartt Bowles. (Pocket American and English Classics.) The Macmillan Co., New York. 4×6 in. 158 pages. 25c.

Life of the Christian (The). By Rev. G. Campbell Morgan, D.D. The Bookstore, East Northfield, Mass. 5×7¾ in. 114 pages.

The six chapters of this book, presenting the nature, the sustenance, the expression, the consciousness, the testing, and the value of the Christian life, exhibit at their best the qualities which procured for their author the invitation which he has recently declined to become Mr. Moody's successor at Northfield.

Lives of the Presidents of the United States. Illustrated. (Childhood Classics.) W. B. Conkey Co., Chicago. 5½×7½ in. 204 pages. 50c.

Long Bridge Boys: A Story of 1861. By W. O. Stoddard. Illustrated. The Lothrop Publishing Co., Boston. 5×7¾ in. 344 pages. $1.25.

The Long Bridge boys were two friends, one living in Washington and one at the other end of the Long Bridge across the Potomac, just beyond Alexandria, on the Virginia side. They are made to represent respectively the Union and the Confederate cause, but their separate adventures and sympathies do not divide them. It may impress the reader as inconsistent with this friendship, and hardly exemplary or heroic conduct, that one boy should go to his friend's home as a spy—but this is just how the author makes a hero of him, for it is thus he gains the information through which he is enabled to save the capital and the President himself from a Confederate plot. Mr. Stoddard's history is doubtless authentic, and he brings clearly before the reader his pictures of war-time Washington; but we question the taste of that incident, especially as a pivotal point in a juvenile book.

Macaulay's Poems. Edited by Franklin T. Baker, A.M. (Pocket American and English Classics.) The Macmillan Co., New York. 4×6 in. 224 pages. 25c.

Meaning and Practice of Commercial Education. By Cheesman A. Herrick, Ph.D. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 378 pages. $1.25.

Educators and business men alike will be interested in learning from this book how much has been done here and abroad in the systematic teaching of commercial methods. We all know of business schools and correspondence methods, but few are aware that many universities are providing courses for the study of commerce and business methods; that Germany, France, and Belgium provide for these branches as part of their general system and have fine buildings devoted exclusively to the task; or that the bibliography of the subject is large and important. This book is partly historical, partly expository, and is a thorough piece of work.

Money: A Study of the Theory of the Medium of Exchange. By David Kinley, Ph.D. (The Citizen's Library.) The Macmillan Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 415 pages. $1.25, net.

This, to use its author's words, is "an attempt to present a systematic exposition of the theory, or scientific principles, of money." While we cannot accept Dr. Kinley's contentions in their entirety, we find that his work is, as a whole, characterized by lucidity, originality, and informing criticism of classical theory, from which he has occasion to dissent on some important points. Prefacing his study of monetary systems by a historical survey of the genesis, evolution, and social importance of money, he properly lays stress on the interaction between the economic progress of a country and its system of exchange. To the essential and contingent services of money, on the one side, he largely attributes the present development of the industrial world, while, on the other, he observes in the ever-increasing extension of commercial enterprise a factor profoundly modifying accepted theories. Thus, the Ricardian doctrine respecting the ready flow of the precious metals is held to be incomplete in that it takes no account of economic friction or of the various devices whereby a country may preserve its money supply "at a level relatively higher than that of the world at large." Chief among these devices Professor Kinley places the credit system, the dangers as well as the advantages of which he is at pains to detail. The extension and refinement of the credit economy, he declares emphatically, cannot be carried on indefinitely. Analyzing the operations of the law of the growth of the relative volumes of credit and specie payments, he arrives at some interesting conclusions: that, *e.g.*, "an artificial increase of the supply of money by such devices as bimetallism would only be a temporary expedient. . . . It would simply substitute a higher price level for the existing price level for a time;" that "an artificial stimulus of the credit machinery is also undesirable, because it hastens the time when the community will need a larger amount of metallic money in order to avoid the evils of falling prices," and that "the world will get a new money supply when it really needs it." In connection with a study of the efforts to prevent changes in the price level, bimetallism is again explored, with arguments pro and contra, and a final decision in favor of gold monometallism. The work closes with an examination of the various methods of securing an "elastic currency," the verdict returned calling for the issue of convertible paper by banks, but not by the Government, which will find it easier "to control the banks in their issues than it is to manage the business itself." Nor, in Professor Kinley's opinion, should the amount of this paper be fixed by law, the Government contenting itself with the "institution of proper safeguards against the abuse of the credit-issuing power of banks." The argument that such a course would tend to create a money power with interests contrary to those of the people at large is, we are told, an argument for control, not for prohibition. "The gain allowed banks of issue for their services to the public should not be excessive, and they

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should be so restricted by law as to be continually reminded that they are in a measure public institutions bound to care for the public interests as well as for the interests of their private stockholders."

President (The). By Alfred Henry Lewis. Illustrated. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 514 pages. $1.50.

Frankly, we prefer Mr. Lewis very much when he is writing "Wolfville Days" stories than when he is trying to depict political life in the form of fiction. In those genial and slangy tales of "the wild and woolly West" the author showed abundant humor, but here one wonders how he can ever possess any sense of humor and not laugh at his own preposterous hero, who seems like an unintentional burlesque on "Ouida's" elegant young men. In the first chapter or so he scatters millions, buys a New York daily paper, catches a falling girl of a hundred and thirty pounds weight (as we are thoughtfully told) as lightly as a feather, imposes his English valet on Washington society, squeezes the hand of a gigantic Russian until the dark blood oozes from his fingers, and does other marvelous things. The whole story reads as if it were written hastily, and published without a critical rereading. The glimpses of political intrigue and ambition may be founded on special knowledge, but there is a note of exaggeration both in incidents and characters.

Primer of Physiology (A). By E. H. Starling, F.R.S. Illustrated. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 4×6½ in. 128 pages. 30c., net.

Pursuit of Phyllis (The). By John Harwood Bacon. Henry Holt & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 230 pages.

A diverting account of an unattached gentleman's Quixotic pursuit of an unknown young woman, on a self-imposed mission to deliver into her hands certain letters he discovers she has left behind in the room he is occupying at an English inn, of which she was apparently the last tenant. He follows her across the continent, arriving always at each halting-place in her itinerary just too late. But, finally, in China, she is overtaken, and the inevitable romance follows. The matter here is slight, but the manner is sprightly and pleasing, and incidentally there are conveyed to the reader quite vivid impressions of the different localities visited.

Red Window (The). By Fergus Hume. G. W. Dillingham Co., New York. 5×7 in. 318 pages.

There is a moderately successful attempt at character-drawing in this English detective story; but the chief business of the author is, of course, the unraveling of the coil he has created about the commission of a crime, and Mr. Hume is at his best when he sticks to his last.

Seeking Life and Other Sermons. By Rt. Rev. Phillips Brooks, D.D. (Tenth Series.) E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 5×7¾ in. 374 pages. $1.20, net.

The Preface to this volume announces that it concludes the publication of Bishop Brooks's sermons, though not exhausting the best of the material in hand, and is representative both of the successive periods of his development and of every quality that made him a power among men.

"Sequil," or Things Whitch Ain't Finished in the First. By Henry A. Shute. The Everett Press, Boston. 4¼×6½ in. 189 pages.

Whether or not this document is authentic, the boy is sufficiently genuine, and although there are plenty of phonetic peculiarities in the spelling, the real humor of this "Sequil" by no means lies altogether in the originality of its orthography, often apparently the sole dependence of the writer of this sort of book.

Shakespeare's Tragedy of King Richard the Third. Romeo and Juliet. King Henry the Fifth. Edited by W. J. Rolfe. The American Book Co., New York. 4¼×6½ in. Per vol, 56c., net.

Shelburne Essays. By Paul Elmer More. (First Series.) G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 5×7½ in. 253 pages. $1.25, net.

South American Republics (The). By Thomas C. Dawson. (The Story of the Nations Series.) G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 5×8 in. 513 pages. $1.35, net.

With this volume Mr. Dawson concludes his interesting study of our South American neighbors, surveying in picturesque fashion the past and present of Peru, Chili, Bolivia, Ecuador, Venezuela, and the youthful Panama. On the one hand, he vividly brings out the romantic associations of the long ago—of the Spanish conquest, the baneful colonial period with its legacy of hatred and turmoil, and the sanguinary war for independence; on the other, the more prosaic but more profitable possibilities of the future, emphasizing the importance of the influence that the Panama Canal is certain to exert on the different republics. His work is especially valuable, however, as leading to a clearer understanding of the qualities of the Spanish-American peoples and to a keener appreciation of the fact that, as Mr. Dawson remarks in discussing Venezuela, "the power for evil of the turbulent military class may perish once for all with startling suddenness when the right stage in national development is reached."

Spirit Christlike (The). By Charles S. MacFarland. The Pilgrim Press, Boston. 5×7¼ in. 173 pages. 75c., net.

The brief chapters of this volume are helpful to the moral and spiritual uplift of thoughtful hours. Drawn from deep experience, they are richly suggestive, simply expressed, and show a good degree of literary finish.

Weather Influences: An Empirical Study of the Mental and Physiological Effects of Definite Meteorological Conditions. By Edwin Grant Dexter, Ph.D. The Macmillan Co., New York. 5½×8¾ in. 286 pages.

Yours with All My Heart: Her Own Story as Told by the Beautiful Italian Gazelle-Hound, Fairy. By Esther M. Baxendale. Illustrated. L. C. Page & Co., Boston. 5×7½ in. 314 pages.

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The Political Issues

A Free Parliament

Until the election we shall open our columns to a free discussion of the political issues involved in this campaign, reserving, of course, the right to reject any contribution; it will doubtless be quite impossible for us to publish all that will be sent to us. No personal abuse of either candidate will be allowed. Brevity is important, and preference will be given, other qualities being equal, to the shorter letters.—THE EDITORS.

SHALL WE REWARD PARTISANSHIP?

To the Editors of The Outlook:

It has been the fond hope of many patriots that the days of extreme partisanship were over; the increase in the number of independent voters giving hope for better things for the future. This hope was strengthened by the action of ex-President Cleveland and other Gold Democrats, in 1896 and 1900, who refused to support the ticket of their party against their convictions of duty. At the same time the editors of the Hartford "Times," New Haven "Register," and other journals won golden opinions for their noble and patriotic course. Was this an ephemeral sentiment, or may we hope for its continuance? We have a Presidential candidate who, while believing the gold standard necessary for the Nation's welfare, and the Bryan system pernicious, deliberately voted for the latter, at the behest of party. Would not his election be a rich reward for partisanship and crown it victor over patriotism to the infinite degradation of American politics? MARVIN R. WARNER.

Cromwell, Connecticut.

[He may have thought the other issues involved were more important than the currency issue.—THE EDITORS.]

A VERMONTER'S OPINION OF THE VERMONT ELECTION

To the Editors of The Outlook:

The result of the State election in Vermont recently was virtually a verdict from the common people on the record of the National Administration. Although State officers were elected, the strongest appeal to the voters was on the National issues. National leaders in both parties spoke during the campaign on National issues alone, and argued that the size of the Republican majority would be taken as an indicator of the sentiment of the American people. A plurality of 25,000 was given as the normal figure for the Republican party to record, and the rise or fall from that point would be the test of public sentiment. Previous to election day the Democrats were confident of bringing the plurality down to 20,000 or less, and Republican leaders were somewhat apprehensive on account of small attendance at rallies during the campaign; but the voters were ready when the polls were opened, and gave the Republican candidate for Governor a plurality of 31,745 (unofficial figures). Governor-elect C. J. Bell has a majority of 29,877, and this verdict is accepted throughout the country as a flattering indorsement of the present Administration and a forerunner of Republican victory in November. The State Senate, thirty members elected on the basis of population, is solidly Republican; and the House, one representative from each town regardless of its population, contains 212 Republicans, 31 Democrats, and 3 Independents. Some important legislation is likely to come before this body, as the Republican platform called for a reorganization of the State's system of auditing, the creation of the office of Attorney-General for the State, the inauguration of a good-roads system, the passage of a caucus law, and amendment of the present system of license-local option for controlling the liquor traffic. Although the party promised a fair trial of the present liquor statute after it had been amended to make it more effective, there is evidently considerable sentiment to change from the present system to some form of State control. However, it will be difficult to unite the lawmakers to an extent that will enable them to make a change in the system for handling the traffic.

W. J. BIGELOW.

Burlington, Vermont.

CONCERNING THE GOLD STANDARD

To the Editors of The Outlook:

In an article entitled "Political Issues," contained in your issue of September 17, the most important acts of the Republican party during the past eight years are reviewed for the consideration of the reader in deciding his vote. Among the acts mentioned is the establishment of gold as the standard of value, and if the reader thinks that the demonetization of silver was dishonest, and the gold standard is intrinsically unjust, he is told that he should vote against the continuance in power of the Republican party. In other words, he should vote for the Democratic party. Is it fair to the Democrats, despite the declaration of their candidate on the subject prior to his nomination, thus to make out that they are against the gold standard, as your article leads the reader to infer? I have always believed in the fairness of The

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Outlook, and would be glad to be shown that no unfairness is here. S. K. K.

Jamesburg, New Jersey.

[We did not say that the Democrats are opposed to the gold standard. In fact, some of them are opposed to it, some are in favor of it, some are indifferent. We said that those who thought that the gold standard was intrinsically unjust had a reason in that fact for voting against the party which had established the gold standard. Per contra, those who believe in the gold standard can have no reason for voting against the Republican party in the fact that it established that standard.—THE EDITORS.]

ONE FILIPINO ON INDEPENDENCE

To the Editors of The Outlook:

I take the privilege to answer your editorial comment on Philippine Independence which I read in your paper dated June 11, 1904. As the future of Philippines depends not only upon the Filipinos, but also upon the American people who assumed the great responsibility of governing us and to help us in our struggle to conquer our liberty and to put our country at the standard of the most civilized nation, I think it is my duty and of every Filipino to thank America and the American people, but at the same time to defend my beloved country from any misconception.

In Philippines, as you assert, a public opinion or political will neither does nor can exist. This is a great mistake. Facts have proved and still prove the contrary. What causes the ardent desire of every Filipino for self-government? What caused the united insurrection in the whole archipelago against Spain and United States, where we sacrificed our home, property, and thousands of lives? The protest of the Filipinos against the Friars? The co-operation which the Philippine Exposition Board received from the inhabitants of the Islands? If these facts and others that I can quote do not demonstrate that in Philippines a public opinion exists, no public opinion ever existed.

From the history of Scotland, Canada, India, and Australia, you deduce that political dependence of Philippines in the United States is better than its independence. The relations of Scotland and Canada with British Empire can not be compared with those of my country and United States; for the Filipinos differ widely in race and in customs from the Americans. And history does not give a single example showing that individual liberty, peace, prosperity, progress, and civilization are the result of a union of two races; for such unity as any good form of government requires can never exist under such circumstances, under a mutual and hateful prejudice.

From the facts that not a State in the United States is independent, you deduce that Philippines ought not be independent; in other words, not a State of the United States is independent, consequently no other country ought to be independent. If this is a right argument, then I agree that Philippines must be a State, territory, or colony of United States.

My earnest desire and sole hope that this might assist to lead to a true conception of my beloved people.

FRANCISCO R. YCASIANO.

Ithaca, New York.

[We have never said that the Filipinos ought not to be independent. We have said that the time for deciding that question has not yet arrived; that in our judgment the great majority of the intelligent and well-to-do Filipinos are strenuously opposed to immediate and absolute independence; that for the United States to sail away from the islands *now* and leave them to themselves would be to destroy their beginnings of liberty and good government; that the question of their ultimate independence should be left to be decided by the generation that will be directly affected by it; and that we think it *probable* that when that time comes the Filipino people will not want independence, and *certain* that if they do want it, the American people will not deny it to them.—THE EDITORS.]

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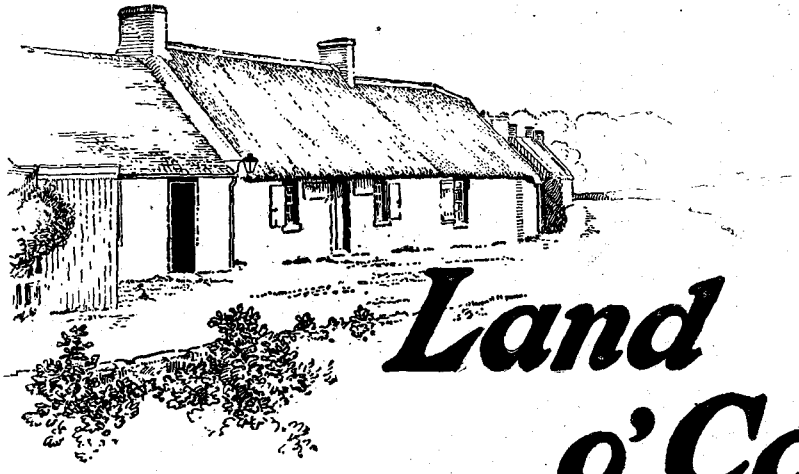

Land o' Cakes

"Land o' Cakes" is a name frequently given to Scotland where meal cakes form an important article of diet. The phrase was made famous by Robert Burns in 1789, in his poem *On Captain Grose's Peregrinations through Scotland*, which commences with the following lines:

> "Hear, "*Land-o-'Cakes*" an' brither Scots,
> Frae Maidenkirk to Johnny Groats"

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